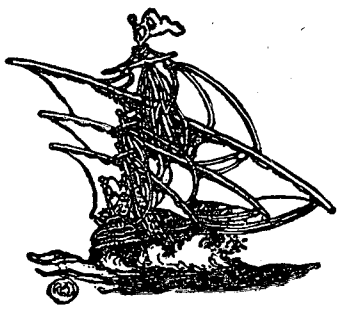
THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

FEBRUARY 15, 1924



Ramsay MacDonald's Government

S. K. Ratcliffe

"Al" Smith's Barbecue

Martha Bensley Bruère

and news from

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You Are Invited

THE EDITORS and Board of Directors of The Survey invite members and friends of Survey Associates to a dinner at the Hotel Astor, New York, on Monday evening, February 25, at half past seven o'clock.

GOVERNOR GIFFORD PINCHOT will forecast the industrial and social changes which may be ushered in by Giant Power and will tell the story of a conservationist's quest for the solution of the coal problem through an electrified world.

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A Glimpse Ahead

The Hydro Country

IT seemed to me that in Woodstock the cure of cheap power was pretty effective. Ten thousand people were living together without crowding—living in houses of their own with bits of green around them and a chance for gardens if they chose. They were living in cleanliness and apparent decency. They were living in domestic ease through a plentiful supply of power at low enough rates so that they could use as much of it as they choose. They were living in the practical certainty of work enough for all of them all the time. The eight-hour day prevailed and such wages as I was able to get the facts about were fair. For amusement there were two moving picture shows. There was also a social life as witnessed by the bridge party on the neighboring farm. If they left Woodstock for a great city it was not in search of work, or the convenience of life, or social intercourse, but for some subtler, more personal, less definite reason, and as a matter of fact they tended to stay.—*Martha Bensley Bruère in the Giant Power number of Survey Graphic.*

Mr. Hoover

MR. HOOVER talks like a man about inter-state treaties. He talks like a boy about making a dam in the Colorado River. He will make it go down one hundred and sixty feet below stream bottom. He will make it rise two hundred and fifty feet higher than the Washington Monument. At stream bottom he will cause it to be perhaps six hundred feet wide. At its top he will cause it to be perhaps twelve hundred feet wide. In order to make ready to built it he will dig eight tunnels through the adjoining cliffs. Some of these tunnels will be a mile long. Through them he will cause the Colorado River to flow out of its bed and to yield to him a dry place on which to get his dam built before he turns the Colorado River back to its accustomed course and sees behind the dam waters rising to make a lake which will give to distant sand, sunk below sea-level in the Californian Imperial Valley, a secure fertility and beauty. And perhaps, somewhere, in some really accessible canyon, he will build a water-fall.—*William Hard in the Giant Power number of Survey Graphic.*

The Vista of Cheap Power

THE Giant Power Survey of Pennsylvania breaks with the binding cords of technical precedent; it seeks to find how power can be made to "contribute to the fulness of life." It reckons with engineering as well as human factors which were comprehended in such earlier concepts as "super-power." Giant Power would link the energy of mines with that of waterfalls, recover the valuable by-products in bituminous coal, supply current to the trunk lines of an integrated transmission and distribution system, spread electrical energy to the farm and reduce rates to the small consumer in ways that will "revitalize the whole social fabric." *The work before the Giant Power Survey of Pennsylvania will be presented by its director, Morris L. Cooke, in the Giant Power number of Survey Graphic.*

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GIANT Power means giving to every producer of current an opportunity to add to a common stock and to every user an opportunity to draw therefrom. Giant Power means the practice on the broadest possible scale of every possible economy, such as the pooling of standby facilities and the elimination of every waste, such as that due to a low power factor. But Power also means the education of the public to the point where it can intelligently and fully cooperate with public and private enterprise in these objectives.—*Governor Pinchot in the Giant Power number of Survey Graphic.*

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THE SURVEY

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The Gist of It

NO MORE engaging interpreter of British affairs than S. K. Ratcliffe is in the habit of visiting these western shores, and fortunately he is in the habit of visiting them pretty often. The Survey is glad to draw on his fresh personal knowledge of His Majesty's Government (p. 496).

BY A HAPPY coincidence, we can print alongside Mr. Ratcliffe's description of England's first labor government Mrs. Bruère's lively account of a piquant episode in the relations between labor and government, American style (p. 498).

YOU generally find Clarence S. Stein right about at the point of livest contact between architecture and the community; at the moment he is serving with distinction as chairman of the New York State Commission on Housing and Regional Planning. His note on p. 509 is based on an interesting phase of the commission's recent report on the present status of the housing emergency in New York.

DR. BOAS, who writes of the chronic patient (p. 519) is medical director of the Montefiore Hospital for Chronic Diseases, New York.

THE news of educational experiments in Latin America (p. 528) comes from Professor Kirkpatrick of the University of Michigan, who is recognized as a leader of the academic forces working for a greater freedom for teachers in Anglo-Saxon America.

FRANK A. MANNY (p. 531) is listed in Who's Who as "ednl. adviser exptl. schs." which may be as good a way as any other of saying that he is an explorer and counselor on the fringes of educational progress.

CARSON COLLEGE at Flourtown, Pa., cares for 68 orphan girls at a time. Out of her experience with these changing 68 Elsa Ueland, president of the college, has distilled some trenchant observations on subtler phases of the orphanage job (p. 512). Helen B. Pendleton is supervisor of field work at the Atlanta School of Social Work (p. 515).

ONE could range far in the formal literature of psychiatry without catching so vivid a glimpse of the actual processes of a "behavior clinic" at work, and its meaning for the homely world of children, as one gets from the story of Mildred (p. 501).

THE CONFIDENCE which American social workers everywhere have for years felt in the sane leadership of Mrs. Falconer makes her advice in the choice of readings in social hygiene (p. 537) particularly acceptable. With Dr. Exner, she is associated with the American Social Hygiene Association.

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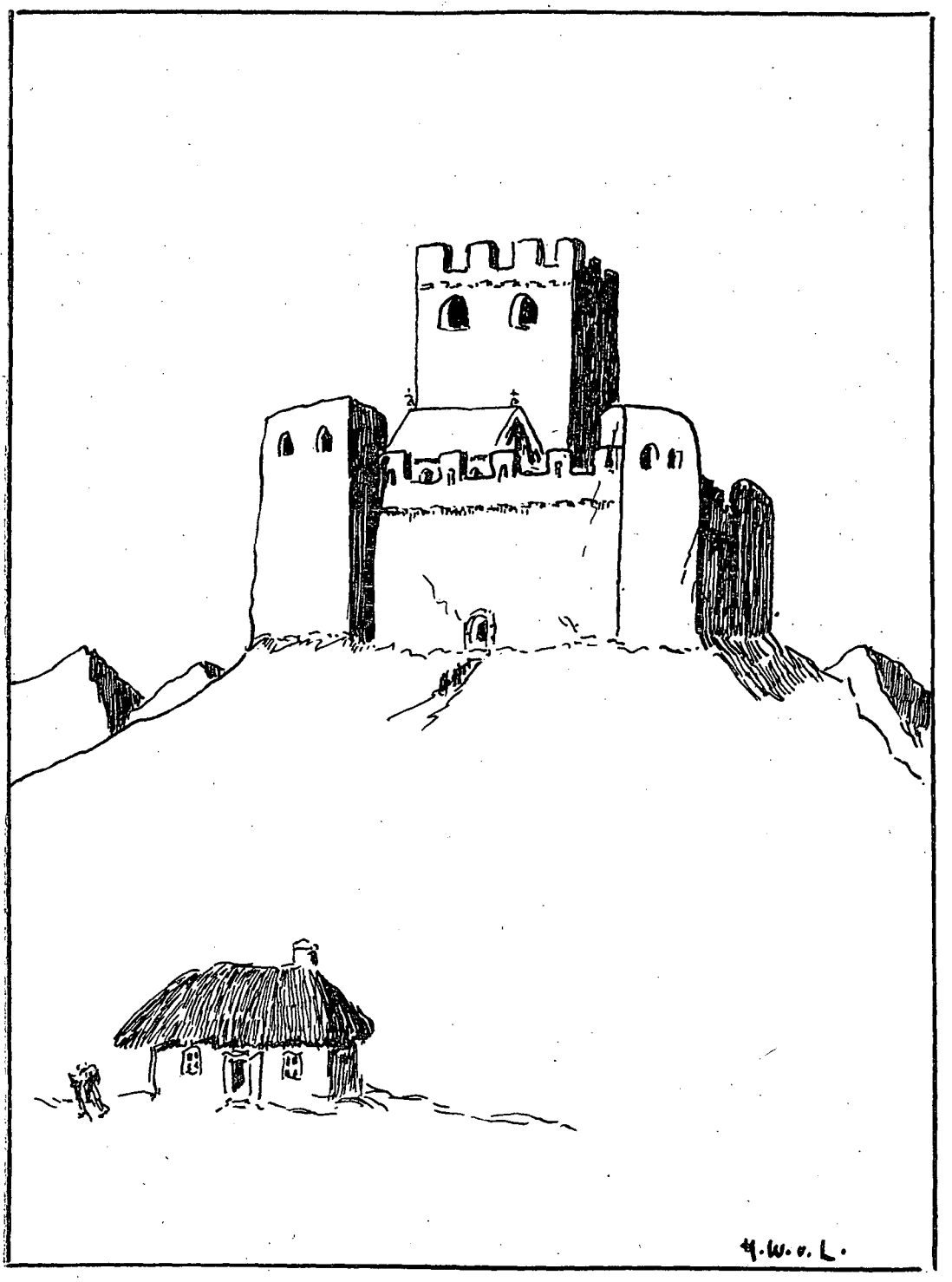

Drawn by Hendrik Willem Van Loon

ENGLISH HISTORY
1924: The Cottage
Conquers the Castle

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THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

February 15
1924

Volume LI
No. 10

Before Wilson Died

By Raymond B. Fosdick

FORMERLY UNDER SECRETARY GENERAL OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

WOODROW WILSON gave his life for an ideal. That ideal was the passionate belief that just as mankind has conquered a score of ancient evils by conscious effort, so war can be conquered, if only the creative intelligence of men can be harnessed to the problem. It was this belief that drove him to the constructive proposals embodied in the League of Nations.

Six weeks ago I spent an hour with him at his home in Washington, and just two weeks ago I visited him again. On both occasions his physical infirmity was marked, but a fortnight ago he seemed weaker than before. His voice was fainter and his face had a pallor which I had not previously noticed. But whatever his physical condition, his mind was as keen and alert as it ever had been, and his spirit flamed with the old fire. In reply to my question as to his health, he quoted the remark of John Quincy Adams in answer to a similar query: "John Quincy Adams is all right, but the house he lives in is dilapidated, and it looks as if he would soon have to move out."

Our conversation wandered over many topics, but his chief thought was of the League of Nations, and its promise for the future. In burning, vivid words he spoke of the day when through the use of this machinery, the authority of law would be substituted for the authority of force. This was the opportunity presented to the new generation. This was America's contribution to the race. Constantly his mind ran back to 1914. The utter unintelligence of it all, the sheer waste of war as a method of settling anything, seemed to oppress him. "It never must happen again," he said: "There is a way of escape if only men will use it." His voice rose in indignation as he recalled the charge of "idealism" so often levied against the League. "The world is *run* by its ideals," he exclaimed. "Only the fool thinks otherwise."

He spoke with enthusiasm of the progress that the League had made in the last four years—of its activity as an international clearing-house of information, of its settlement of the Austrian chaos, of its work in health and other humanitarian causes, and of its handling of the various disputes which had been placed before it. "They are learning teamwork at Geneva," he said. "If only they will give the seed a fair chance, and let it grow!"

As to America's ultimate adherence to the Covenant of the League, he entertained not the slightest doubt. It might come soon, it might come late, but come it would. America would not permanently stand in the way of human progress; America would not long thwart the hope of the race. America was in a position to contribute to the liberation of mankind a spiritual energy which no other nation possesses, and she would not betray her opportunity. Here was the chance, through this experiment in cooperation at Geneva, for the human race to take a mighty step forward; America could not afford to play the laggard. It was the greatest moral issue that had been presented to the conscience of this nation since the question of slavery.

In his earnestness the tears rolled down his face, and when I pledged him on behalf of the younger generation that we would carry through to a finish the thing which he had started, he gave way completely. My last impression of him was of a tear-stained face, a set, indomitable jaw, and a faint voice whispering "God bless you!" With his white hair and gray, lined face he seemed like a reincarnated Isaiah, crying to his country: "Awake, awake, put on thy strength, O Zion; put on thy beautiful garments, O Jerusalem!"

He is dead, but he has made a lasting contribution to the thought of the world. If war can by any means be avoided in the future, if by rational processes mankind can acquire the habit of cooperation and peace, it will be because the idealism and intelligence of Woodrow Wilson were laid upon the altar of sacrifice to this supreme cause.

New York, February 4, 1924

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Ramsay MacDonald's Government

By S. K. Ratcliffe

NOTHING, when all is said, can diminish the significance and the surprise of the first Labor Government in England. Three or four years ago, it is true, politicians of all kinds were predicting the early accession of Labor to power. Many, including certain London editors who ought to know better, were never, down to the recent election, able to free themselves from the fantastic terror of a labor government headed by Lloyd George. But, as a matter of fact, the outlook seemed to have become, by 1922, less favorable than it had been at any time since the end of the war.

Unemployment and falling wages had depressed the trade unions. Their membership had seriously declined. Their reserves were being eaten up by claims for unemployment benefit. True, the Bonar Law election of 1922 had put fresh heart into the movement by its doubling of the Labor membership in the Commons; but, on the other hand, that campaign had exhausted the party funds.

It did not occur to the Labor leaders that a Conservative prime minister could be so childlike a strategist as to throw away his position and destroy his own party in an election that nobody wanted. The Conservative Government seemed fairly well set for an unsatisfying spell of, say, three years. Barely two months before the great event I heard the most brilliant and influential woman in the party chaffing a group of her friends on the happy prospect of their coming into office ten years hence!

When, however, Stanley Baldwin took the plunge in November last, two practical questions, and two only, emerged. The first had reference to the extent of the liberal revival. By deciding to fight upon the issue of protection vs. free trade, the Conservative prime minister had actually offered the Liberals their own battleground. They would have asked for nothing else. They had not dreamed of any such stroke of luck. Baldwin (as he himself afterwards claimed) had done the one thing that could ensure the reunion of Asquith and Lloyd George, and by doing so, he had raised the question whether Labor or Liberal was to be the party of the second place in point of numbers. The other question was altogether new: If Labor, with increased membership, retained its second place, would it be ready, on the defeat of the government, to take office despite its minority position in the House?

The answer had been given, with sufficient force, a full month before Ramsay MacDonald gave it in final form. Speaking on January 8, at a victory demonstration in the Albert Hall, he said:

> We are to shirk no responsibility that comes to us in the course of the evolution of our movement. There are risks, certainly, risks on every side—risks behind, before us, to the right of us, and to the left of us. Ah, but there is more than risks, there is a call. . . . If we shirked our responsibilities now we ourselves would be inflicting upon ourselves the defeat that our enemies could not inflict upon us. So we accept our responsibilities.

Ramsay MacDonald showed the quality of his leadership, and his faculty of instant decision, in a fashion that met with a delighted response from the English people. The task of cabinet-making has usually been, in the hands of the Victorian type of prime minister, a tedious and annoying business. MacDonald had his list ready within an hour or two of his audience with the king, and the evening papers of January 22 contained formal announcement of an event which, as almost the least instructed citizen could realize, marks the transition in England from one epoch to another.

THE personality of the prime minister excites unbounded interest; and no small part of that interest is connected with the fact that Ramsay MacDonald is totally unlike the image of the prospective Labor prime minister that the world, including the British portion of it, has been led to set up. And it is odd to recall that, had events in England happened only a little differently, the first head of a Labor Government might have been a wholly typical representative of political trade-unionism—Arthur Henderson.

Ramsay MacDonald is fifty-seven years of age. The product of one of the finest peasant stocks in the world—that of the northeastern Scottish highlands—he has Scotland in his entire being. It is in his brain, with its unflagging drive and grasp; in his lifelong habit of study; in his reverence for the things of the mind; in the romantic quality of his spirit, transforming his arduous intellectual processes; in his emotional depth, and in the baffling reserve which, combined with an external habit of cordiality, makes him, as everybody in the Labor movement has come to realize, an essentially withdrawn figure. It is in his speech, and especially in his oratory, which retains the full force of the northern consonants and enough of an occasional strangeness in vowel sounds to puzzle his audiences in England.

For thirty years MacDonald has been to all intents and purposes a Londoner. At the time of his marriage to Margaret Ethel Gladstone, we knew him as a journalistic freelance, making for a place in the still unshaped political Labor Party. Those who came across him in the London of the nineties, thought of him, I imagine, as a man with a political future fairly assured. It was plain enough that he was born for the House of Commons; but I greatly doubt whether, even after he had, along with Keir Hardie, created the national organization of the Labor Party that was to be, any one of his colleagues saw in him the promise of anything more than moderate success.

His advance, after 1906 when he entered the House of Commons, was rapid and thoroughly deserved. His parliamentary gifts were at once acknowledged, and it was not unimportant that in personal attractiveness he was one of the half-dozen noticeable men in the pre-war assembly. I recall, as a fact of undeniable interest, that during the epoch of the

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Lloyd George social-welfare legislation, Ramsay MacDonald had, in the Labor Movement and Parliament, the reputation of a man who might easily be the medium, the active agent, of a Labor-Liberal compromise. Certainly we did not in those years look upon him as the man who would, in the hour of supreme crisis, take an absolute stand on principle. This, however, is what MacDonald did; and it was his affirmation on August 3, 1914, following upon the speech by Sir Edward Grey that carried Britain into the war—it was this affirmation, and the steadfastness with which he stood by it, which tested his mind and character and, after years of unmeasured obloquy, gave him first the unchallenged leadership of his party, and then the dazzling prize of the premiership.

Some day the full story will be told of Ramsay MacDonald's martydom from 1914 to 1921. It was an ordeal of extraordinary bitterness. For several years he was the most unpopular man in England. He did not (it is well to remember) take the pacifist position. He is not a non-resistant. He condemned the pre-war diplomacy, and the British decision; but his own effort was devoted to insistence upon the right of discussion and the maintenance of a free platform and, later, upon the absolute value and necessity of a peace of justice. Together with his friends in the Union of Democratic Control he fought for the free platform, and won; and as the war neared its end the successive proclamations of the Wilson policy came to strengthen the hands of those in England (by 1918 a great host) who demanded a treaty of settlement and appeasement and a concert of free nations to secure a warless world.

But, although the popular opinion in all countries was moving in this direction, it was long before the ban upon Ramsay MacDonald showed signs of being lifted. He was pursued with indescribable malignity. His words were perverted and his character maligned; his private record was raked with pitiless, and unavailing, assiduity. Now and again his enemies declared that he was about to retire from public life. Not seldom, we may be sure, he was tempted to give them the satisfaction for which they were hungering. His friends knew (and, indeed, an exquisite little book from his own pen enshrined the confession) that the death of his wife, two years before the war, had marked for him the close of a chapter of deep personal happiness and fulfilment. He was twice defeated at the polls, before the tide of war hysteria abated. But he continued the struggle, and during the four years (1918-1922) of his absence from Parliament he immensely strengthened his position in the Labor movement. In the Bonar Law election he regained his position in the House, and was at once elected leader of his party. That was a natural, an inevitable, restoration—the tribute of MacDonald's own people. On January 22 he was enabled to enjoy an infinitely richer award: the knowledge that (their inherited sense of fair play restored) his fellow-countrymen as a whole had received, with something more than mere acquiescence, the news of his elevation to the first place in the British Commonwealth.

THE personnel of the new Labor Government has, of course, provided a topic of discussion for the whole world. Ramsay MacDonald had no experience to guide him. He was required to fill offices which, ever since the creation of the cabinet system, had been occupied by men for whom everything was made easy. Obviously he was driven to do a certain amount of window-dressing—that is, to secure the services of a few men whose names would have a reassuring effect upon the ordinary public, which has for the most part accepted the dictum that Labor cannot govern. He had to find places for the most valuable of the "intellectuals," and to give a reasonably adequate representation to the regular old-line trade-union leaders without whom there could have been no Labor Party at all.

Public curiosity has in the main displayed itself over the Prime Minister's three peers. The Government, manifestly, must be well represented in the House of Lords, and it will be agreed that a trio of peers is a small enough allowance. Lord Haldane, as Lord Chancellor, was from the first a certainty. A great jurist, and a scholar of immense attainments, he has proved himself to be a great administrator. He gives his adherence to Labor because for him there is hope for democracy only in an educated electorate, and he believes that the Labor Party alone is earnest over that great matter. Lord Parmoor, his colleague, was a Tory and is a great ecclesiastical lawyer, a fearless champion of the citizen's day in court, an untiring advocate of the cause of the suffering European peoples. And with these two is Lord Chelmsford, the progressive conservative peer who, as governor-general of India, initiated the new Indian constitution of 1919.

India in the Labor Cabinet is associated with the appointment which to me is Ramsay MacDonald's most brilliant stroke. His choice for this pivotal department seemed to lie between some sympathetic ex-official and one of the radical labor members who have become interested in India through their sympathy with the Nationalist movement or Non-Cooperation. MacDonald chose Sir Sydney Olivier, who adds to a long training in the colonial civil service the experience of a governor of Jamaica.

There will be nothing reckless in Philip Snowden as Chancellor of the Exchequer, in J. H. Thomas as head of the Colonial Office, or in Stephen Walsh as War Minister. Sidney Webb, whose extraordinary equipment fits him for almost any department, would have been in his right place at the Ministry of Health, which has been put in charge of John Wheatley from the Clyde. Webb is not in his wrong place at the Board of Trade. Arthur Henderson can certainly direct the Home Office and J. R. Clynes has a parliamentary gift that should make him a good deputy leader of the House. MacDonald had practically no choice in the matter of the Foreign Office. Friends and opponents alike urged him to take it himself. His knowledge of Europe is unsurpassed among English men of affairs and he at once began to show that he had the right temper and method. The instant recognition of Moscow was a step which would have been taken this year by any British Foreign Minister, Liberal or Conservative. The point is that the Labor Prime Minister took it generously and with a single mind. MacDonald's approach to France was no less characteristic. He addressed a personal letter to Poincaré, deploring the recent misunderstandings and giving a frank pledge of a half-way advance. And he allowed it to be known that, while depending as far as might be upon the functions and powers of the League of Nations, he was ready to consider those special guarantees of French security, without which, as the world knows, we cannot hope to bring the French government and people into any scheme of organic peace.

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The Barbecue

By Martha Bensley Bruère

ONCE I was asked to a barbecue, a few miles outside of Memphis, Tennessee. Off to one side of the old southern homestead, the low flames were flickering over the coals that covered the roasting meat. A white-haired Negro was in charge of the ceremonies.

"Yassum, he been roastin' two days now. When Mis' Louie 'low'd as how we all was havin' a barbecue to pleasure her niece that's gittin' married, I jes wrestl'd roun' after this yere roan steer till I catched up with him down by de branch—he been triflin' roun' yere a right sma't chanst!"

"Why did you pick him out?"

"Yassum—well he was allus agittin' the yuther cattle inter trouble and costin' Mis' Louie money gettin' more fence rails and maybe these yere wires. For a long time I aint 'spicion him none—lookin' jes as innocent as a jay bird! But I kinda hung off in the bushes till I fotched up with him wo'kin' de top off de gate where was de cawnfield on de yuther side. And so I says to him, 'fust chance I git I'm gwine barbecue you shuh.' And yere he is!"

GOING up from New York to Albany to the hearing which Governor Smith had called to investigate the charges made by the Associated Industries, Inc.—an organization of manufacturers and business men said to have 2600 members—against the state department of labor, were representatives of most of the organizations which for the last decade have been trying to get through the state legislature what have come to be called the welfare bills. These are the bills which social practice everywhere has determined as necessary for child welfare, for health, and education, and for the great campaign against poverty. For a decade we had all met disappointment year after year; sometimes a bill would almost get through, and then in the last minutes of the legislative session it would fail. The campaign for these measures had become almost entirely a campaign for the education of the public. We were not a specially cheerful group on the train, for if it were true that the state department of labor had broken down, what chance had these welfare bills of getting through the legislature?

The indictment of the state department of labor was brought by the Associated Industries, Inc., under eight heads, which, summed up and bunched together, alleged a serious breakdown in the department; unnecessary delays in the awards of the Workmen's Compensation Division; illegal powers assumed by the Industrial Board; political domination of the department and in general extravagance and inefficiency in the administration of the State Compensation Fund.

To this challenge for an investigation, Governor Smith replied by appointing himself commissioner and proceeded to subpoena 34 directors and officers of the Associated Industries, Inc. as witnesses. They were not, the governor expressly stated, on trial.

Before the hearing opened the executive chamber was filled to the doors. Back of the rows of chairs men were standing four deep. From my seat at the press table, they showed a curious likeness of expression—even a likeness of physical condition. The majority were middle-aged or over. They had reached the time when the illusions of youth as to the general goodness of the world and as to their own powers of uprightness were a trifle dimmed. They carried, too, some excessive weight, piled upon them by a life where effort was diplomatic and verbal rather than physical; clean-shaven, smooth of contour, unwrinkled, relatively hairless, and quite unreasonably pink. They had a tendency, too, to settle heavily from foot to foot, and to find standing irksome. The front row of chairs was reserved for what the reporters about me called the arch criminals—the members of the Labor Department, grouped about Commissioner Shientag. Before any witnesses could be called Judge Sutherland of Rochester (ignoring the fact that the governor had stated that the association was not on trial), rose and announced himself counsel for the Associated Industries, Inc. and begged to file an amendment to their complaint, which withdrew the fifth and sixth charge in their original indictment. These charges were to the effect that the State Fund had been badly administered and at a cost in excess of what the law allowed. The amendment covered a formidable series of pages. The governor laid them aside unread, and called as the first witness Alfred H. Swan, the president of the A. I. I.

It appeared that Mr. Swan knew nothing of these charges of his own personal knowledge. He had relied implicitly on the word of Mark A. Daly, secretary of the association. What Mr. Daly told him he took to be fact without question. He had, however, agreed to the withdrawal of charges five and six in the amended indictment which Judge Sutherland had handed to his Excellency.

"Because they were false allegations?" asked the governor.

"Because they were incorrectly stated," answered Mr. Swan.

"Withdrawn because they were not fact?" persisted his Excellency.

"Yes—more of a prophecy," admitted Mr. Swan.

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And then one by one all the charges were branded as false by the next witness, J. Charles Andrews, vice-chairman of the Advisory Committee of the State Fund, an appointee of Governor Miller.

Member after member of this advisory committee, all business men, rose to endorse Mr. Andrew's statements, sometimes giving examples out of their own experience as to how well the department had functioned.

Next Governor Smith called Mark A. Daly, secretary of the Associated Industries, Inc., to the witness stand. Supported semi-internally by gum, Mr. Daly gave his testimony.

It appeared that 21 of the 34 directors of the Associated Industries, Inc. had been present at the meeting on January 10, when the demand for an investigation of the Labor Department was decided on. Mr. Daly testified that the information he gave them, and upon which their letter of accusation and demand for investigation were based, was from a confidential source, which he refused to divulge even at the demand of the governor. The whisper circled around the press table, louder and louder as it went from man to man, that "there ain't no such party."

"I direct you to answer the question," said the governor.

"I mean no disrespect, but I cannot give the name," said Mr. Daly.

"Will not?" asked the governor.

"Cannot," persisted the witness.

"Is he an employe of the state?"

"I cannot answer."

"Does he live in Albany or New York?"

"I cannot answer that."

"Hard to subpoena him then!"

The mass of pink, middle-aged, experienced male citizens filling the Executive Chamber had the look of putting their tongues in their cheeks.

"Did you divulge the name at your directors meeting?"

"I don't remember."

"Have you a stenographic record?"

"My transcript only."

"I'd like to look at that."

Mr. Daly, slowly getting into his brief case: "There is nothing malicious in this charge. It was to conserve the interest of our members only."

"Was there no injury in letting a false report go about for weeks?" asked the governor.

"I had no means of checking it up," countered Mr. Daly.

"Why not see me about it?"

. . . . . .

"Yassum, and when dat ole roan's hide 'gins sizzlin' in de fire ain't I jes clapping my heels togedder, studying how der ain't goin' to be any mawh fence holes made int' Mis' Louie's cawnfields, and no mawh tromplin' de straw pile nor nothin!"

. . . . . .

"WHAT'S this?" asked his Excellency, tossing something across the table.

"My mistake," admitted Mr. Daly with a slow grin.

It was the boiler plate of a cartoon representing the governor trying to run the labor machine—a prehistoric sub-Ford—and wondering why it did not go. Below it were printed the charges against the department. It had been sent to all the country papers throughout the state for release on Monday, the 14th, the governor having received the letter from the Associated Industries, Inc., on Saturday, the 12th. Judge Sutherland was on his feet, denying that the directors knew anything about the cartoon. Mr. Daly had been a valuable and faithful servant, but in this case he had made a mistake.

At this juncture the question of the 48-hour week found itself unexpectedly before the hearing. The governor, glancing down at Mr. Daly's transcript of the minutes of January 10, had seen a note to the effect that the Associated Industries, Inc., might be willing to accept a compromise on that point. All during the ten or more years that the 48-hour bill had been appearing and disappearing in the state legislature, the A. I. I. had fought it bitterly. Now they seemed willing to consider the question of compromise.

The governor quoted from a letter written by Mr. Daly during a previous bout with this bill before the legislature: "While the women were hustling for the bill, we hustled some ourselves."

The 48-hour bill slipped away as unobtrusively as it had appeared.

After that the question of how free a hand Mr. Daly had with the funds of the Associated Industries, Inc.—as in the matter of the unpaid-for boiler-plate release—was competently dealt with. Then Mr. Daly was temporarily excused, and one after another the directors of the association took the stand. One after another they swore they knew nothing personally of the justice of the charges; one after another they slipped deftly from under the cloak of responsibility and left it hanging on Mr. Daly's shoulders.

And then all we of the sedentary occupations and the pink faces went out to lunch elaborately and talk it over.

. . . . . .

"Yassum, it takes a heap of co'd wood to barbecue that roan steer—deed it do! If Mis' Louie was a-sellin' wood, she'd be some minchin' usin' it up to pleasure her niece gettin' married."

. . . . . .

AFTER the recess, the members of the Labor Department who had been gathered from their work, wherever it happened to be throughout the state, prepared to testify. The charges of bad administration and exceeding the legal cost allowance having been withdrawn, there remained the general charge of the serious breakdown of the department.

The governor searched for this serious breakdown through division after division, with Mr. Daly again on the stand. What in Mr. Daly's opinion constitutes a breakdown in the Bureau of Inspection? Mr. Daly did not know. In the Bureau of Women in Industry? In Industrial Hygiene? In the Division of Employment? In the Bureau of Research and Codes? Here Mr. Daly seemed to touch bottom. Rule 2 of the Code had been altered by the Industrial Board so you couldn't tell how high a building was under it. It might have been only three stories, and then suddenly it was five or six—and all this change made

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after hearings had been held, and on the advice of the department's own inspectors!

Miss Frances Perkins, a member of the Industrial Board, took the stand. Then it developed that the buildings to which Mr. Daly referred were usually on hillsides and river fronts, many of them in Cohoes and Troy, and that Mr. Daly's perplexity grew out of the fact that the same building might be five stories at the river and two stories back on the hill. The change in the rule was made in order to meet this fact fairly. And who should know the facts better than the department inspectors, whose business it was to have studied them in detail? So that the changing of Rule 2 was not held even by Judge Sutherland to constitute a serious breakdown in the Bureau of Codes. Neither was Mr. Daly prepared to allege any breakdown in the Division of Statistics or of Mediation. It appeared that all along he had meant the breakdown to apply to the Bureau of Workmen's Compensation, and chiefly to its Buffalo and New York offices. The whole matter of Workmen's Compensation the governor passed over until the next day, and went on to charge 3.

Now this third charge alleged that the state department of labor was so under political domination as seriously to interfere with its service to the employers, employes, and the public. Under the governor's questioning there was hasty pursuit of cases of political appointments, at the end of which unsuccessful chase Mr. Daly withdrew the statement, except as to Buffalo. He desired to file a list of non-qualified appointments in the Buffalo office. No, he hadn't the list written out—but he knew that there were four or five, and when pressed further:

"I prefer to admit, governor, that the phrase 'complete domination' was an unfortunate phrase."

Finally the governor came to the last charge—that of extravagance and inefficiency. Mr. Daly asserted that in 1923, 261 employes were put on the payroll. It was his idea that the department was overmanned; that everyone added to the payroll added to the inefficiency of the department in its service to the people of New York.

"Then the charge of inefficiency and extravagance rests on the fact that the commissioner asked for and received an increased appropriation?" the governor summed up.

Mr. Daly was temporarily excused again. Commissioner of Labor Shientag, taking the stand, showed how that increased appropriation had been spent; how 15,000 licensed home-work shops in the tenements of New York alone had formerly had 11 inspectors, and how he had increased the number to 21. Rapid mathematics on my part showed that this left 714 workshops to the care of each inspector. The commissioner showed how the Women in Industry division, which had been reduced to a comatose condition with only three members under the previous administration, had been brought to life; how the department which inspected buildings had been revitalized; what he had done to other departments and what their return in service had been. The commissioner concluded with the statement that the real basis of complaint against the department was that it had done too much, not too little.

Suavely, gently, but withal in an extreme state of nerves, Judge Sutherland rose and begged for time in which the Associated Industries, Inc., might prepare their evidence. It seemed fitting for the commissioner to remark that the evidence should have been gathered before the charges were made.

"When you pulled a bone why not own it?" the governor asked as the conclusion of the first day's session.

. . . . . .

"YASSUM. Seems lak that roan kinda knew what was gwine happen ter him—didn't even chew his cud comfortable while I was drivin' him up—seems lak he felt his self sizzlin'."

. . . . . .

BY the morning of the second day of the hearing the charges were reduced to three alleged delays in making awards in the compensation department. Three delays in more than 109,000 cases!

The president and directors of the Associated Industries, Inc., had been dumfounded and Mr. Daly and Judge Sutherland were pleading for time to prepare their case and to get evidence. The governor read a copy of a telegram from Mr. Daly to all the members of his association begging for evidence to back up the charges, and pathetically urging that this evidence be in his hand on the day before the hearing.

"Why didn't you get the evidence beforehand?" the governor asked.

"There wasn't time," answered Mr. Daly.

"Didn't you want me to be prompt in making the investigation?"

"Not too prompt," said Mr. Daly.

And then his Excellency pushed the papers from in front of him and brought his hand down on the great table, and declared the real reason for the attack on the department. He read from a bulletin issued during the last legislative session by Mark Daly to his membership, stating their unalterable opposition to all the Welfare Bills. The governor knew this attack for the political move it was—an attempt to hold up legislation pending along these lines, and he said it in plain English. Then, closing the hearing, "It has been demonstrated that we have an even better labor department than I myself thought we had. . . . . This hearing has cost $666 and it is worth every dollar we spent to find out that everything is all right."

So now at last there is a fair chance that this attack may turn upon itself. For when these welfare measures come again before the Assembly no opposing legislator can say that they will be ineffectively administered if they are passed, none can refuse to vote for them on the ground that the money appropriated will be extravagantly spent, or that they will be the playthings of politics.

And with their powerful opponents discredited, the faithful and efficient Mark Daly having taken a chance and lost, these bills for which socially minded people have fought so long may pass the legislature this session. Certainly their advocates after the hearing were very hopeful.

"We must push them—we must get them introduced immediately." . . . . "Which is it wise to bring up first?" . . . . "And what becomes of Mark Daly?"

. . . . . .

"Yassum, he's dead all right now. Aint no devilment left in him, but . . . . he know a powerful lot 'bout dem cattle he'd been leading'; mebbe his ghost gwine walk."

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The Story of Mildred

MILDRED MARTIN was brought to the Bureau of Children's Guidance in the spring of 1922, a tragic figure of school failure. Transferred at the age of eleven from a church school to a public school, she had been found wholly unequipped for work in her proper grade, the sixth. A psychologist reported her fitted to do average work in the fourth grade, but she proved unequal even to that of the second, and had to be put back into 1A. In the three months that followed, though tutored and encouraged in every way, she had succeeded in advancing only one grade.

Thus the girl—unusually tall, though stoop-shouldered—was stranded in a room full of tiny children, hardly more than half her age or height. She had developed a profound state of intimidation and embitterment. Apathetic, unsocial, sullen, she seemed to have retired into an inner world of her own to such a degree that those who observed her had become seriously alarmed about her mental state.

The school people had shown an eager desire to help. They found a tutor for Mildred and explained that she would be advanced as rapidly as she could make up her work. The visiting teacher, not content with making the best possible school adjustment, had endeavored to discover the causes of the difficulty. She had tried vainly three times to get a report from the church school. She had become acquainted with the mother—a "sober, industrious woman," devoted to her children—learned that the father was a drinking man, bad-tempered and often unemployed, that the only other wage earner was an older daughter, and that a younger daughter was making fair progress in another school. The mother was sure that nothing had happened at home to block Mildred's progress. The visiting teacher knew, too, that the child was a victim of congenital syphilis, but the clinic which had her under treatment offered no explanation of the school difficulty, reporting "satisfactory physical improvement." With the failure of these approaches to yield a clue she turned to the bureau for aid.

First Steps

The first thing to be done in such a situation, obviously, is to discover the causes which have eluded search. Is there anything in this child's heredity that is weighing her down? Do her father's drinking habits or other traits affect her seriously, or are there elements in her relations with other members of the household that contribute to her difficulties?

In her school life forced association in classes with much younger children is very painful to the child, but what of her play life and her associates generally outside? Has she any bad companions, or any injurious habits? Has she worries, is she troubled by any painful memories or imaginings? What may be the mental bearing of her syphilitic condition—or, if she realizes its serious nature, what may be the effect of this realization? Has she any other physical handicaps that play a part in her mental life? Is her mental life characterized by any striking anomalies, any significant abilities or disabilities?

Both Mildred's parents were born in Illinois and came to New York as young adults. No history of mental disorder or of serious constitutional troubles came to light, though it is impossible to assert positively that nothing of the sort existed on either side. The father's people were apparently better-to-do than the mother's, and Mrs. Martin spoke with great respect of his mother.

Mildred's father, now a man of about forty-two, had always been a hard drinker with a terrible temper, taking the last cent in the house to buy liquor even if this meant that his children would go hungry. He had worked in munition plants during the war, as driver of a delivery wagon, as subway guard, as ticket chopper at an elevated railway station. When Mildred was referred to the clinic, he was having only an occasional day's work. Yet he was said to be, when sober, energetic in the pursuit of jobs, and a good worker.

For many years Mrs. Martin had been janitress in a tenement house. She had also done washing and day's work. She often had to accept aid from one of the large relief agencies. Only during one brief period had her husband worked with any regularity. During this period, as Mrs. Martin also worked, it had been possible to buy some needed furniture and clothing.

Extraordinary as it may appear, the home was pleasant and cheerful. Mrs. Martin and the children seemed to be happy together. The mainstay of the family was the eldest daughter, Amy, a girl of eighteen, who earned $15 a week as a telephone operator. Her health had always been good, Mrs. Martin said; she had finished the seventh grade and she liked her work. Another girl and three boys, all older than Mildred, had died earlier, but there were two other little girls younger. Harriet, eight and a half, and thus three years Mildred's junior, was a pretty, bright-looking child. She attended a different public school from Mildred, and had recently been promoted from 1B to 2A. Lois, not quite five, was a beautiful, plump, rosy-cheeked youngster.

The Health of the Family

According to Mrs. Martin, her own health record and that of her husband were good—with an important exception. Mr. Martin had once suffered from ugly sores on his arms and legs. He was treated in a hospital until the sores healed, but refused to continue longer. Mrs. Martin did not know at the time that his trouble was syphilis, and he absolutely refuses to admit that he has ever had any such disease. Shortly before Mildred's birth, Mrs. Martin had an outbreak of sores, which later disappeared, without her having any notion of the nature of the trouble.

The mother's account of Mildred's babyhood reveals nothing unusual. She was healthy and good, had her first tooth at about six months, walked at about ten months, talked early, and was quick to learn little tricks. How-

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ever, she had never been cured of wetting the bed—still sometimes doing this even though her mother got her up two or three times a night.

When Mildred was four, she was found to be syphilitic and placed in a hospital for nine months, after which her mother carefully followed the directions of the nurses as to clinic treatment. At the end of another four months the clinic discharged her as cured, but she soon developed "pains in her bones" and was again taken to a hospital for three months. Since then she has been supposed to report for treatment once a week. She has been a difficult patient, screaming, kicking and biting the doctors and nurses, often slipping out before the treatment—reactions not at all surprising when one considers the painful nature of the treatments (intravenous injections of salvarsan), the inability of a child of Mildred's age to appreciate their importance, and the fact that she had to go alone to the hospital clinic and often wait long periods in its depressing atmosphere. The clinic reported that a negative Wasserman had been obtained in the preceding December, but urged continuance of the treatment.

Her Schooling

At six Mildred had entered the church school. Her five years there had been much interrupted by illness. She made no progress, apparently—at all events did not learn to read—but was promoted from year to year nevertheless. Much of the time she was used as an errand girl and assistant cleaner. Finally the teachers told Mrs. Martin that they could do nothing for her, and her transfer to public school followed.

Her Life Outside School

Though not a reader, Mildred was fond of listening to stories and of telling them. She liked to paint, to sew and make things for her little sister, to knit, and to play with other children in the street after school. Apparently she was liked by these children, who often called for her, though she had a tendency to tease. At home, the mother said, she was helpful about the house and "very good at cleaning if not bossed," but silent, sullen and bad-tempered, in particular quarreling continually with her sister Harriet, with whom she slept.

Endeavoring, at the request of the worker, to trace back these traits to their first appearance, Mrs. Martin recalled that up to the time of beginning school the child had been bright, sociable and friendly, apparently quite normal. Some time afterward a change began, which became more marked as the years passed, Mildred's disposition growing progressively worse until Mrs. Martin began to feel that the girl "would go crazy" if something were not done. Mildred never told at home that she had been put back into the first grade. Mrs. Martin gave it as her opinion that the child did not care greatly.

What Does the Social History Explain?

Clearly, we know too little of Mildred's grandparents or other more remote ancestors to say more than that no special hereditary burden is indicated. On the other hand, both drunkenness and syphilis in a parent may so affect the offspring as to hinder normal development before and after birth.

However, in Mildred's case the mere history of congenital syphilis does not enable us to draw any definite conclusion. When syphilitic parents pass on this complex and baffling disease to only one in a family of children, that one suffers in being set apart and compelled to submit to nagging and painful treatments from which the other children are exempt. The degree of suffering, and the manner in which the mental attitude of the child is affected by such an experience must be determined in each individual case.

Just as difficult is it to determine specifically what influences the child-father and child-mother relationships had on this child. The precise manner in which a particular child is affected by the presence of a drunken, brawling parent in the home, or by the resulting social stigma, can be determined only after close personal study. Whatever the deliberate attitude of the parents, the mere fact that she was a source of trouble created certain emotional reactions within the family, which in turn inevitably reacted upon the child.

Enuresis, or bed-wetting, is still to a great extent an unsolved medical problem. When this habit persists to such an age as Mildred's it is frequently associated with other irregularities in a child's development. Mildred was very sensitive on this whole subject. The fact that the younger sister with whom she slept had no such difficulty doubtless intensified this attitude and may largely explain the discord between the two.

What accounts for Mildred's poor school progress? The mother's story of her babyhood indicates no slowness or irregularity in development, nor did psychological tests afford such evidence. Her frequent absences from school may have led to her missing much essential elementary instruction. She had very good powers of attending to what she heard and remembering it, so that she may have "fooled" her teachers in the lower grades into thinking she was reading when she was only parroting what she had heard others read.

What Examination Showed

Following the completion of the social history, Mildred was given a psychological examination at the bureau. She proved reticent and rather unresponsive, not in the least elated by success and quite undisturbed by failure. Her reactions were slow and thoughtful; she made an effort to be persistent, and succeeded well in spite of evident fatigue. She could read only a very few words, but wrote well and made fine figures, much better than those of the average 14-year-old child. On the whole her performance was intelligent. Her mental age, according to the Terman revision of the Binet tests, was 11 years, 9 months, as compared with 12 years, 2 months, her chronological age, so that her intelligence quotient was 97, practically normal. Her examiner felt that with assistance in the fundamentals of education she should be able to advance regularly and rapidly.

Physical examination showed that the girl was well developed and well nourished. Her muscular development was good, though posture was poor. No evidence of organic or nervous disease was found. Her vision and hearing were normal.

Quite apart from the examination of the psychologist is the first hand study of the child made by the psychiatrist, in this case a woman. She found Mildred timid and excessively sensitive, but not at all disposed to give way to her emotions; though her eyes would flood with tears when a sore spot was touched, she did not weep. She spoke in a low

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WHO MILDRED IS

THE STORY of Mildred as given here is condensed from a forthcoming book, Three Problem Children, intended "particularly for the growing numbers of social workers, school teachers, probation officers, public health nurses and parents who are already aware that modern scientific knowledge has provided a new approach to the handling of children whose conduct is a problem in school or at home."

The Survey asked the privilege of preparing and presenting in advance this briefer version of one of the three stories, since space limits prevent an adequate abstract of the whole volume. The book will be published by the Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency, one of the divisions of the Commonwealth Fund Program for the Prevention of Delinquency. The stories are drawn from case records of the Bureau of Children's Guidance, conducted by the New York School of Social Work under another division of the Program.

unanimated voice, answered, if at all, briefly and to the point, but offered almost no spontaneous material. Her fund of ideas was evidently very meager, her answers showed that she took little interest in her surroundings, and she exhibited indifference to situations which ordinarily arouse the curiosity of a healthy-minded child.

Although Mildred's inaccessibility, lack of interest, emotional dullness, and general withdrawn, subjective attitude were strongly suggestive in the aggregate of a picture commonly encountered in the early stages of dementia praecox, this diagnosis was not taken seriously enough to determine procedure in the case. On the contrary, the physicians of the bureau were inclined to view the entire situation as a deep emotional difficulty which might well be understood as in the nature of a reaction to various harassing and intimidating influences that came to the child from the home, the school, and the general environment.

Mildred's attitude toward her family, as revealed in this interview, was rather a hopeless one. She was fond of her mother, but never talked things over with her, and she expressed hearty dislike for her sister Harriet.

The child showed a great deal of feeling when asked about school. She had just been advanced to Grade 2A, but seems to have felt little pleasure in the promotion, perhaps because Harriet had made the same grade shortly before. She had a hopeless feeling about the school situation. Reading was still very difficult for her, and the second grade stories so childish that she could get up no interest in them.

We have here a child with a normal intelligence and a body that, in spite of inherited constitutional disorder and of failure to outgrow one of the weaknesses of babyhood, seems essentially sound. At least neither mentality nor physique, so far as the most careful technique of examination can reveal, offers any explanation of this child's failure to respond successfully to the demands of her environment. Yet here she is, at twelve years, weighed down by an experience of complete school failure, and suffering from a resultant bitterness and despair that has evidently been exaggerated many fold by the circumstance of having a much younger sister, free from all her handicaps, drawing ahead and exulting in the fact.

If, in this situation, the familiar devices of sympathetic and intelligent class-room handling and of individual tutoring outside the schoolroom had not been tried, one might be justified in turning to these aids with confidence that they could meet the need. But they had been tried, had seemed for a time to offer hope of success, and had then utterly ceased to produce results. Clearly, school failure was a symptom of some more fundamental difficulty. What was this difficulty?

The answer emerges from a multitude of details as the one supremely significant feature. By steps imperfectly traced in the foregoing history Mildred had reached a point in her career where hopelessness under a crushing and seemingly inescapable burden of failure, which had almost completely obliterated self-confidence and self-esteem, had become the dominant element in her case. The central problem was therefore that of restoring hope, self-confidence, and self-esteem, while at the same time every possible external lever was being applied to lightening the load.

What Treatment Involves

In the work of the Bureau of Children's Guidance it is not until the physician in charge of the child has gathered in and evaluated all the information furnished by social history and psychological tests, not until he himself has made a most careful, thorough physical examination, and has discussed the issues involved as the child sees them, that an attempt is made to outline a definite plan of treatment. This plan may consist, at the outset, of a number of well defined measures, or merely of one or two quite tentative experiments; it may be carried through practically as first projected, or may be modified repeatedly by new discoveries and unexpected reactions on the part of the child or others concerned. Treatment centers usually in a series of confidential talks between the physician and the child, supplemented by interviews between the physician and such grown-ups, concerned with the child's problem, as come for consultation to the office. For the most part, however, the contacts of the bureau with parents, teachers and other interested adults are made by the social worker in the home, the school or elsewhere, and the psychiatrist's interpretation and recommendation are thus conveyed to those who are in close daily touch with the child. The visitor tries, too, to get into the friendliest relations with the child and to carry out personally many items of the program, drawing upon her own resources to elaborate and supplement the psychiatrist's plans.

Just one week after the first visit, her mother declared that Mildred was already "much better." To say precisely what took place in the mind of this hyper-sensitive, inarticulate little girl during the initial half-hour with the physician is manifestly impossible. Interpreting her experience by the resulting outward signs and by what is known of the parallel experiences of many other patients, one may hazard a guess. Here was a grown-up who didn't try to teach her anything or to correct her, who seemed (*Continued on page* 540)

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The Common Welfare

PROSPECTS for two years of peace in the soft coal industry are a bit brighter. Operators and representatives of the United Mine Workers, facing one another across the conference table at Jacksonville, Florida, have been seeking a way to a longer truce than is usual in their embattled industry.

The union operators, with the menace of governmental regulation at one elbow and the loss of markets to non-union mines at the other, are in no warlike mood. Nor are the miners, just now recovering from the strain and stress of the big strike of 1922.

In opening the sixth biennial convention of the United Mine Workers at Indianapolis on January 22, President John L. Lewis dwelt on the advantages of a two-year contract to take the place of the one expiring on March 31 next. He picked his erstwhile opponent Frank Farrington, president of the Illinois Mine Workers Union, for the job of facing the operators as head of the union's policy committee. Farrington, by all odds the most successful negotiator in the union's ranks, is one with Lewis in the policy of renewing the present wage scale for at least two years.

Aside from its bearing on the chances for a strike this spring, the miners' convention was of little general significance. It was a machine-made, machine-run affair with the Lewis forces always at the throttle and the opposition demoralized and planless. The only progressive measure that came safely through the conservative cog-wheels was the reaffirmation of the union's demand for nationalization of both mines and railroads. The sentiment for nationalization is so strong among the rank and file of the miners that none of the old guard in the convention dared oppose it. Nationalization supporters, however, find little to cheer about in this as the work of "education for nationalization" is left in the hands of those who are openly apathetic about the whole matter. Otherwise the convention, with its boiler-plate statement in regard to Russia, its guarded reference to a Labor Party and its dodging of the union's desertion of the non-union workers who came out in the 1922 strike, was as flat as a Pullman breakfast.

THE Boy Scout Foundation of Greater New York is campaigning for 1,000 new scoutmasters. It estimates that there are 250,000 boys between 12 and 18 years of age in New York, of whom less than one in ten is now enrolled in a scout troop. If a thousand new leaders are secured, and found fit for their delicate responsibility, they will be able to care for 35,000 to 40,000 additional boys. A scoutmasters' school in each of New York's five boroughs stands ready to give the volunteer immediate training.

This opportunity for a man to gratify at the same time his love of the outdoors and his interest in boys should result in the recruiting of many desirable leaders. So sound are the purposes behind scouting and the scout appeal that it is a pity that the New York organization should have felt it necessary, in a recent request for funds, to drag in the gooseflesh motive and urge the support of scouting because it combats the "anarchistic organizations" which are alleged to be "sowing seeds of disloyalty even among schoolchildren." The Survey is glad to learn that this alliance with the folks who make a business of seeing red was a casual and temporary one, and that further appeals will presumably be based on the firm foundation of the positive service that scouting renders.

WHO chooses your magazines for you? The Union News Company controls most of the important news-stands in the North Atlantic states. Since its stands are placed at strategic points where heavy traffic brings a steady stream of customers, it is the ambition of every publisher to have his wares prominently displayed upon them.

So insistent have these applications for display become that the Union News Company has decided to systematize the privilege and to do so on a basis which makes the stands more profitable than ever. It plans to select a group of magazines which have the largest sale at the present time and to give front row display to these periodicals for a stated number of days after publication. Each magazine selected for this preferred treatment will be required to pay a rebate in addition to the regular commission on each copy sold. Publications with smaller circulation will then be invited to take whatever display space remains—also upon payment of a rebate.

This means that at the news-stands which serve the largest number of people there will be a greatly stimulated sale of the Saturday Evening Post, the American Magazine, the Red Book, the magazines with movie heroes on the cover, and the cheap fiction mediums such as True Stories, Snappy Stories, Live Stories, and I Confess. Meanwhile The Atlantic, Century, Harper's, Scribner's, The World's Work, The Review of Reviews, The New Republic, The Nation, Our World, and similar publications will be for sale to those who have eyes far-sighted enough to discover them on the rear rows, or the temerity to ask for them. The casual purchaser, who wants a magazine and hasn't time to make a careful selection, will find himself more than ever acting on ready-made choices.

So the line of least resistance in magazine reading will be hedged about, just as the broad and easy path of the movies has been, in the interest of the largest sales and profits. It has always been a militant adventure to launch and maintain

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a magazine designed to please the taste or stimulate the thinking of a minority; the odds will now be stronger against such an effort. Those accidental conversions to intelligence by which minorities are recruited from the great easy-going intellectual middle classes—and for which every editor angles continually—will become still less frequent than they now are. The folk-ways and the Union News Company have small use for the variant.

ARTHUR GLEASON was the outstanding interpreter to his fellow Americans of the British Labor Movement. He bore witness to its significance as a nascent force in the new democratic life of England when it was still obscure; its leadership misunderstood and condemned. His own part as interpreter was little recognized at home. A service was held last week in New York by fellow journalists and friends of Mr. Gleason, writers, social workers, labor leaders and others. There came cables from the Premier of England and other leaders in the new British Labor Government, singling out the service of this young American journalist who had borne witness so long before his fellows on both sides of the Atlantic. Their homage may be a presage of a time when a man's service to the understanding between peoples may be prized even as devotion to his own country.

The cables read:

As officers and representatives of the British Labour Party and Trades Union Congress who formed ties of friendship and affection with Arthur Gleason during his visits to this country, we join with his friends and fellow workers in America in their tribute to his memory. His work as a journalist has already borne fruit in a better understanding of the leaders of the Labour movement and its policy on the part of the American people, and we cherish the memory of a brilliant and attractive personality who made friends of all he met here. . . .

ARTHUR HENDERSON
SIDNEY AND BEATRICE WEBB
ROBERT SMILLIE
MARGARET BONDFIELD
FRED BRAMLEY
ARTHUR GREENWOOD
WILL HENDERSON
MARION PHILLIPS
HERBERT TRACEY
WILLIAM GILLIES
JIM MIDDLETON

I learned with genuine regret of the untimely death of Arthur Gleason. Labour on this side of the Atlantic will wish me in its name to pay a tribute to an able and sincere friend, who did as much as any man of our time to interpret to the American people the meaning and aim of the organized working class movement here. . . .

J. RAMSAY MACDONALD

THE right of Armenians to American citizenship hangs on the issue of a case which will be argued in the United States District Court of Portland, Oregon, about March 1. U. S. v. Cartozian is one of a series of test cases which will give exact definition to the naturalization law; if the decision is adverse, no more Armenians may become citizens and the citizenship of all who have at any time been naturalized here will be forfeited. This retroactive feature is a startling one, but the precedent was established in the case of Takuji Yamashita v. J. Grant Hinkle (secretary of state for the state of Washington), decided in November 1922. Aside from Negroes of African descent, only "free white persons" are eligible to citizenship. Who is a free white person? The question has bobbed up again and again in naturalization courts in various parts of the country. Decisions in the lower courts have been reversed by the Supreme Court. Because of this confusion in the interpretation of the phrase, Mr. Justice Sutherland suggested, in giving the opinion of the Supreme Court in such a case in November 1922, that further definition was needed by "the process of judicial inclusion and exclusion."

The trend of the cases so far has been to exclude "people of primarily Asiatic stock." But decisions are becoming increasingly difficult when the homeland of nationals under question is in that borderland, Asia Minor. "The intention (of the original framers of the law in 1790) according to the opinion of the Supreme Court (Takao Ozawa v. U. S.), "was to confer the privilege of citizenship upon that class of persons whom the fathers knew as white, and to deny it to all who could not be so classified." The Court is also of the opinion that, as color varies greatly even within the Anglo-Saxon race,

to adopt the color test alone would result in confused overlapping of the races and gradual merging of one into the other without any practical line of separation. The determination that the words 'white person' are synonymous with the words 'a person of the Caucasian race' simplifies the problem though it does not entirely dispose of it.

Thus far Japanese (Takao Ozawa v. U. S., November 1922) and Hindus (U. S. v. Bhagat Singh Thind, February 1923) have been definitely judged ineligible for naturalization under section 2169 of the Revised Statutes. Will the Armenians likewise be barred?

NOONDAY services in down-town churches are customary in the Episcopal church during the Lenten season. In some churches similar services are held during Advent, which precedes Christmas. Trinity Church, Pittsburgh, central to the business district on the Point, is this year introducing in the interval a series of popular addresses beginning on January 15 and ending on February 29. They fall on Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday and Friday of each week, open at 12:15 and end at 12:50. Except for a brief introductory and concluding service and the lack of questions and answers at the close, the plan suggests a Sunday evening church forum. To provide for discussion, an evening conference is held on Friday of each week.

Trinity Institute, as it is called, is one of the innovations of the new rector, the Rev. Percy G. Kammerer, who brings experience in social work and research, as well as in the ministry, to the extraordinary problems of an old down-town city church in a community so complex as Pittsburgh. For his advisory committee he has drawn on twenty-two Pittsburgh citizens representing business bodies and labor

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unions; educational institutions, social agencies, civic organizations and public departments; Presbyterian, Jewish, Methodist, Unitarian, Lutheran and Baptist, as well as Episcopal churches.

Bishop Alexander Mann, of the Diocese of Pittsburgh, spoke the opening noon on January 14 and the first week was given up to a discussion of Public Opinion, the Foundation of Democracy, the speakers being William P. Beazell, executive editor, of the New York World, a former Pittsburgh newspaper man, and Dr. Worth N. Tippy, secretary of the Social Service Commission of the Federal Council of Churches. Recreation, the welfare of the child, education, the ethics of youth, America and the Orient, and Europe today are subjects of succeeding weeks.

The plan is tentative. Initial sessions of the Institute were attended by from 200 to 500 people, 95 per cent of them men. A goodly proportion were the sort of people who would attend such lectures at any time and any place; people particularly interested in the subjects discussed. But there were others, who live in the suburbs and who seldom get in for evening lectures.

A Pittsburgh business man leaves his desk usually around 12:30 and by knocking off a few minutes earlier he can get to the service. On the other hand, office workers usually go out at twelve. The intention of the founders of the institute is to reach office men and women of all grades with an ethical approach to public questions. How to get them to come, what will get them, who will get them, how often to get them, are some few of the interesting questions underlying this noon-day experiment, the first of its kind in the country.

TO declare war and promote it by propaganda seems to come within the law. But to declare peace and promote it by propaganda, even of the most educational kind, is a horse of another color, in the eyes of certain solemn senators in Washington. In the recent investigation, by the Senate Committee on Foreign Affairs, of Mr. Bok's motives and personal outlay in backing his American Peace Plan, Mr. Bok and Miss Lape seem to have carried off all the honors. In return for the absurd inquiry Mr. Bok offered to turn over the 22,164 peace plans submitted in his contest either to the Senate or to the investigating committeemen as individuals and, if they found a more practicable plan, to reward the author with $50,000 and an additional $50,000 if the plan was approved by the Senate. On the day before Senator Reed lost an opportunity to do the most helpful job in the committee's power. Mr. Bok asked the highly controversial and fairly important question, "What is propaganda?" Senator Reed side-stepped ponderously: "I think you understand it. If you do not you ought not to be undertaking to regulate the affairs of the world." Judging by the tenor of the questions asked by the committee education and propaganda are divided only by the amount of money one can spend in spreading one's views.

The procedure had an almost adolescent solemnity. Even if a senatorial sense of humor is non-existent, where is our reputed sporting blood? When a reply of Mr. Bok's was cheered by the audience, the chairman announced that if the demonstration did not cease the room would be cleared and the public excluded. Something must be done to break up the dead weight of such an earnest purpose in life.

Edward A. Filene has had the temerity to follow Mr. Bok's example and offer $50,000 to the citizen of England, France, or Italy who submits the most practicable plan for the promotion of international peace. If this plan too turns out to be nothing stranger or stronger than the League of Nations Mr. Filene had better watch out!

Meanwhile folks generally continue to vote with great interest on Mr. Bok's plan and their interest in some kind of international cooperation seems to be inching along. And important bills such as the proposed adherence of the United States to the permanent court of international justice, the commercial treaty with Germany, and two Mexican claims conventions remain pigeon-holed while the Committee on Foreign Affairs goes gunning for peacemen with money to spend.

ONE by one those ogres which have menaced the health and often the lives of children are being forced out into the open where they can be conquered. With our present knowledge diphtheria can be abolished wherever we care enough to take the trouble The last few weeks have witnessed an announcement which heralds another notable advance in the safety of childhood. The researches of Dr. A. R. Dochez of the College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University, have succeeded in establishing the preponderant causative agent of scarlet fever, *streptococcus hemolyticus* and he and Dr. Francis Blake of the Yale University Medical School have achieved a serum which, in so far as it has been tested, seems to have remarkable curative properties. Scarlet fever is a disease which not only kills, but cripples, often leaving the children whose lives it spares with damaged hearts or kidneys which may mean partial disability for a lifetime. Granting all those cautious reservations with which the announcement is hedged, there seems every reason to believe in its ultimate importance.

Not the least exciting of the possibilities it suggests is that this conquest of scarlet fever may lead to important new knowledge of pneumonia and measles, in which also the *streptococcus hemolyticus* is often present. This hope, suggested by Dr. Dochez' work, of robbing measles of its very real terrors, received independent confirmation in the work of two Chicago investigators, Dr. George Weaver and Dr. T. T. Crooks, who describe in a recent issue of the Journal of the American Medical Association, their apparent success in the prophylactic use of serum taken from convalescent cases of measles. Here again we may get cure before cause. For forty years medicine has had as one of its most precious resources the anti-rabic serum discovered by Pasteur, but only a few weeks ago word came from the Pasteur Institute in Paris that Dr. Manueline had succeeded in isolating the organism causing rabies, which had successfully eluded the great scientist.

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COMMUNITIES

What the Client Pays

This is the third of Mr. Norton's series of sketches on social finance. It will be followed by two more articles: one dealing with endowments, the other with taxation.

THE attitude of the average layman towards social finance is illustrated by a conversation I recently held with a gentleman on a Pullman train. I had been studying a series of pamphlets dealing with social agencies, and as the circulars were finished and put away a man on my right remarked, "You seem to be interested in social work."

"Yes," I replied, "It is my profession."

We sparred for a time until he had disclosed that he was a business man of Philadelphia, a contributor to philanthropy and interested in it; and I had explained where I came from and what I did.

"How much money do you raise?" he asked. And then when I told him, "That is a good sized sum. I wonder how much money all the charities of Philadelphia use?"

"I do not know what they use now," I replied. "But a report of your Chamber of Commerce on the subject shows that they used about $15,000,000 in 1919."

"Do you mean to tell me that the people of Philadelphia gave $15,000,000 to charity in 1919?" he asked in surprise.

"No," I answered, "the people gave only about $3,000,000; but the philanthropies used $15,000,000."

"Oh," he retorted, mystified. "If only about $3,000,000 was given how in the world could the agencies use $15,000,000?"

So I had to explain that investment earnings produced about $3,500,000; agency earnings, $5,000,000; state, county and city subsidies $1,750,000; voluntary gifts $3,000,000; and the remainder came from balances carried over and loans.

Like the average man on the street, who hears much about the need for gifts and little about other sources of revenue, this gentleman thought of the voluntary gift as the principal or only item of community revenue. But actually the voluntary gift is a poor second among the four sources of income in most cities and falls into third place in some. The largest item of support, wherever philanthropy carries a reasonably rounded program, is earnings from services rendered.

In the consolidated social service budget of the city of Boston, payments from beneficiaries amount to 52 per cent of the total revenue. There is, however, one item of over $800,000—income from sales of the Women's Educational and Industrial Union—which in fairness to other cities to be cited should be counted out, as the proceeds from similar institutions are not included in their budgets. The adjusted figure leaves Boston earning from its clients about 48 per cent of its budget. Cleveland earns 46 per cent; Detroit and Cincinnati each 42 per cent.

There is a remarkable range of variation in present earnings not only between cities, but between similar groups of agencies, and also between similar agencies within each group. It is instantly apparent that if the same whole-hearted attention were paid to this unsung source of revenue, that has been applied to the voluntary gift, it would produce for the future, with far less expenditure of energy, a rich yield which in turn would expand the volume of service.

Public and Private Agencies

When the budgets of the private agencies of Boston, Cleveland and Detroit, are set apart from those of public agencies, the comparative standing of these cities shifts. Detroit's private agencies earn from their clients 64 per cent of their total current revenues; Boston's, 53 per cent; and Cleveland's, 46 per cent. Generosity or the lack of generosity in voluntary giving appears to have a direct reflex on agency earnings. Wherever voluntary gifts have been secured with real difficulty more emphasis and thought have been placed upon agency earnings.

A new shift occurs when we study the reverse side of the same picture. Cleveland public departments earn 45 per cent of the total needed for their support; and Detroit public departments earn only 16 per cent. A partial explanation lies in the field of relief, the least productive department of social work in client earnings, which is private in Cleveland and public in Detroit. But a larger and more influential reason is found once more in the line of least resistance. In Michigan tax legislation of a generous sort enables the public departments of Detroit to secure tax funds with relative ease; while stringent restrictions in Ohio make the public departments of Cleveland fight hard for every dollar of appropriations, so that their attention is turned to earnings as a means of eking out a niggardly income.

What Different Kinds of Agencies Earn

Turning from communities to grouped agencies we find that hospitals are notably large earners in comparison with other agencies. They cater not only to the poor but to the rich and middle classes as well, and are thus able to get large returns from services. Still the earning capacities of the hospitals of different cities differ widely. Combined private hospital budgets of Detroit show an earning power of 84 per cent after endowment yields and payments from government for indigent persons have been deducted; and the united budgets of private hospitals in Cleveland show an earning power of 69 per cent.

It is not just to compare a single hospital in one city with a single hospital in another without presenting the complete hospital service of each community and applying com-

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parative classifications and standards. Nevertheless it is important to note that institutions of about the same size, standards and traditions do vary greatly in different cities in their present client earning power.

Christian Associations, also large earners, differ in earning capacity. They cater to men who can afford to pay for all or part of the service they receive. Early in their career the associations, appreciating the limitations of voluntary gifts, (which, by the way, they have shown more power to get than most other types of social organizations) developed extensive earning facilities in the shape of dormitories, educational equipment, lunch rooms, barber shops, and allied services. I am told that the Young Men's Christian Association of Chicago is very largely self-sustaining, while others of its type here and there in America earn less than 50 per cent of their budgets.

Private homes for the aged in Boston earn 6 per cent; in Cleveland 8 per cent; and in Detroit 55 per cent. Children's agencies in Boston earn 17 per cent; in Cleveland 20 per cent; in Detroit 34 per cent. Washington University Dispensary of St. Louis earns 80 per cent; the Boston Dispensary earns 39 per cent; Harper Hospital Clinic in Detroit earns 23 per cent.

Let me emphasize again that an honest searcher after ways and means will seek out the factors which make blanket comparisons unfair and eliminate these from his calculations. For instance, a dispensary that does nothing but treat the sick as they come to its doors should show a higher ratio of earnings to cost than a dispensary with a medical social service department, even if the latter charged the same fees and treated the same number of cases. Yet the variations everywhere are so great that one is forced to the conclusion that practice is far from uniform, and that only the most fragmentary attention has been given to the whole subject. There are sufficiently striking instances of actual earnings, scattered over the country in almost every field of social endeavor, to indicate that if social executives would unite in the development of standard principles and practices, an enormous volume of new income might ensue.

Should Clients Pay?

A business man I know challenges the right of social agencies to charge fees for everything. He argues that anything to be sold should be sold by business on a commercial basis; and that those who cannot afford to pay commercial prices for service of any kind, and can prove their need, should be given the service for nothing. Divorce charity and business completely. It is an old argument; one of which the medical profession in particular makes much in its relation to social service; and one which rises frequently.

In truth, however, the value of agency earnings lies not only in that pragmatic item of income without which our work would be cut in half, but also in their potentiality as an instrument for constructive social service. American social philosophy has always been fundamentally a philosophy of individualism. Social work sums it up in its own tenet that one of its paramount aims is to restore people to, or to keep people on, a level of self-support and self-respect. This homely philosophy agrees with my business man in demanding that every one of earning age ought to pay for what he gets if he possibly can; but it goes further and supports the right of the individual to pay at least in part if he cannot pay in whole. The fee for service rendered is justifiable, in the philosophy of American life, because it is a means towards the retention or restoration of that self-respect which goes with the dignity of self-support. Yet it is a delicate instrument; if it is pushed too far in the practice of philanthropy the result is social injury rather than social advantage. Those institutions created to equalize opportunity for the young must recognize that the processes of education in a civilized land are almost always carried on at a loss. Health agencies must go about their work in the consciousness that sickness, even among the middle classes, usually descends upon the individual and the family as an unexpected and unprovided-for calamity. Their primary responsibility is to get people well and to keep them well, irrespective of the ability of their clients to pay for the service. The case-working agency, which usually takes the family after it has lost its powers of self-support and struggles to restore those powers, may expect the least return, in payment for service, of any of the social groups. On the one hand is the social value that comes when people pay their way; on the other hand is the social value of fine humanitarian services when people cannot afford to pay their way. As delicate as the mechanism of a watch, the practice of charging fees needs to be studied with one eye on production and the other eye on social values. I lay emphasis upon this balanced view because there are tendencies in social administration to go to one extreme or the other. An executive of a social settlement argued with me at great length a little while ago that her organization could not possibly charge anything for any of the services it rendered. On the same day I had to calm a citizen justly irritated because a hospital would not release an emergency patient without funds until friends had paid the bill.

In Terms of the Settlements

A series of group studies is needed that will place detailed comparative data on this question at the disposal of social administrators. The settlement people are evidently thinking a little along that line. Charles C. Cooper, head resident of Kingsley House, Pittsburgh, has prepared a monograph for the National Federation of Settlements on Settlement Finance, in which a section is devoted to Support by People Using the House. Mr. Cooper finds that there is a general movement to increase the support drawn from those who use the institutions. He writes:

> Parents are increasingly willing to pay a fixed house membership fee for children, and while the sum of such contributions does not bulk large it helps substantially in covering the costs of material used. As the forms of work carried on by the house are organized on a sound educational basis the number of persons in the neighborhood willing to pay what is for them substantial fees, increases. In many instances the fees collected from the dancing class take care of all the costs of music and teaching, and in a few cases contribute to overhead. Music instruction returns from a fifth to two-thirds its cost. Summer camps repay from half to all outgo. A very large number of settlements recover the value of transportation and food from all who go to camp; and the enterprise, in the eyes of both residents and neighbors, bears the aspect of a true cooperative enterprise. Many men's and women's clubs contribute sums which cover the full cost of service received.

Incidentally Mr. Cooper explodes the repeated rumor that any settlements exist which even approximate self-

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support in earned income from clients. The monograph is an excellent beginning towards something badly needed; the settlements will find eventual profit to themselves, and a broad road to expansion, if they will pursue the study further, bringing together for common use, from all the houses, comparisons of actual earnings, expenses, and financial methods of clubs, classes, dances, bathing facilities, camps and other activities; and will make the information generally available.

Work for the Handicapped

Another inquiry that was important in its time was made many years ago by Charles F. F. Campbell, the authority on work for the blind. In 1908 he published in The Outlook for the Blind, of which he was editor, a comparative statement of costs and earnings of various production shops for the blind in the country. The figures, now out of date, showed that there were no truly self-supporting institutions of the kind. Mr. Campbell's continuing researches indicate that the same condition still prevails and that it is neither possible nor desirable to conduct production work for the blind in the expectation of complete self-support. He believes, however, that each shop and home industry department has much to learn from better comparative knowledge of the others; and that the mutual pooling of financial information would lead to changes in policy which could readily increase earnings and decrease costs in many places. The volume of production in both workshop and home industries, for several classes of the physically handicapped and of the economically handicapped, is growing rapidly. If this valuable type of work is conducted—as is not the case today, broadly speaking—on a basis that combines sound social service and business acumen, there is no reason why it should not generate for its own future growth an immense volume of earnings.

Hospital Earnings

A good deal of attention has been paid to the earning possibilities of hospitals. The report of the Cleveland Hospital and Health Survey deals with the subject in a fragmentary fashion; and here and there one finds it bobbing up in hospital journals and other hospital literature. Yet when all has been read one is left without much guidance. The first difficulty here is the inadequacy of considering single institutions. A hospital problem is peculiarly a community-wide problem. Each community needs a certain number of free beds, of part-pay beds, and as many full-pay and profit-earning beds as the public will patronize. It is possible to determine these proportions, with reasonable accuracy, for given communities. Nor is there any fundamental obstacle to determining the proportion of each type of beds to be operated under the various administrative sanctions. The problem of earnings then becomes one of more careful cost accounting, of investigation of part-pay or free applicants, and of salesmanship. Many hospitals can earn more by a real knowledge of costs and in particular of more far-sighted observation of market conditions. I know of an institution whose shrewd president, by raising prices a few cents a month in exact accordance with an upward trend of market supplies, prevented a fifty thousand dollar deficit when other hospitals in the same city were running behind.

The problem of costs has another important aspect: we have a tendency, in the effort to raise standards, toward a constant increase of overhead charges. Somewhere in this process there is a point of diminishing returns, a point where the increasing overhead cost no longer betters the service rendered. Business has a rough and ready way of recognizing this point as the place where profit yield in a competitive market begins to decline. Social service is denied this measuring stick and has developed no other in its place. It ought to be able to do so; and indeed it must do so presently if it does not wish to forfeit its hard-earned good will. The public is entitled in social work to the best service with the least possible waste, in social work even more than in business. Incidentally, the determination of this point will tend toward an increased earning power.

All fields of social work present interesting possibilities in the development of self-support. Public health nursing, which long ago made corporation contracts yield it excellent returns, has been reaching out in recent years into a development of paid hourly service for a clientele above the pauper class, able to pay its way. If I remember correctly, Miss Richmond has long maintained that social case work would eventually be sold to those classes of society which are not dependent upon charity.

Even so casual an examination of the subject as this suggests that while self-support through agency earnings is the largest item of philanthropic revenue today, it may become a very much larger factor tomorrow. The field, while producing well, is still comparatively uncultivated. It holds greater promises of prolific increase in the immediate future than any other source of support for social work.

WILLIAM J. NORTON

Housing New York's Two-Thirds

THE year 1923 was a record year for the building of dwellings in the City of New York. Thousands of apartments, two-family houses and small dwellings have sprung up in all the boroughs. But these houses are filled as soon as they are built, and vacancies in older apartments are no greater than in 1920. What help is the new construction to the great majority of the people of New York? Whom does it serve?

The analysis of family income made by the Commission of Housing and Regional Planning disclosed the fact that of the million and one quarter families in the City of New York more than two-thirds have family incomes of less than $2500 a year; not quite one-fourth of the families have incomes between $2500 and $5000; less than one-tenth have incomes above $5000 a year. How does the new construction affect the housing needs of the Two-Thirds, with incomes under $2500 a year?

The statistical family is four-and-a-fraction individuals. Throwing the incomplete member out of the calculation, a minimum standard for this family of four persons is a four-room apartment—one common room, if it is only a small cramped kitchen, a sleeping room for the parents and one each for the children if they be boy and girl. It is not necessary to describe here how utterly impossible it is to maintain such a standard of minimum decency in the face of a housing shortage. What happens to that standard when families have to double up and the same four-room apartment, because of high rents, has to house two families

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instead of one? When, because of an almost entire elimination of available vacancies, tenants must remain in their old apartments even if the apartment is in a state of disrepair which constitutes a menace to health? Downward pressure forces the lower-income families into poorer and poorer quarters. In moderate priced apartments of older construction, there are practically no vacancies. What is there for the Two Thirds in the new construction?

Hundreds of new tenements and apartments are going up. But in practically none of them, in Manhattan or the Bronx, can an ordinary four-room apartment be obtained for less than $20 per room; $80 a month, or $960 a year. Past budgetary studies and studies of over 5000 families made by the Commission of Housing and Regional Planning show varying proportions of income in different income groups expended for rent; but it is safe to take the ordinarily accepted 20 per cent of family income as the possible expenditure for rent. Upon this basis, this Two-Thirds should pay no more than $500 a year for rent, without serious skimping on food, clothing and other vital items of the budget. To pay $960 a year in rent requires an income of $4000 a year—which only one-fifth of the families in New York City are earning. Where can the others go?

Only one really low rental tenement has been erected in the last few years. Built by the Phelps-Stokes Foundation on a limited dividend basis, the apartments were to rent at $9 a room or $36 per month for apartments with four diminutive rooms. It was built on what is considered cheap land in Manhattan; nevertheless it was impossible to make it pay even the limited dividend, and announcement has been made that rents will have to be raised about one-fourth, to secure a 6 per cent return on the equity. That will mean $45 a month, $540 a year. More than the Two Thirds can readily pay.

It is true that in Queens the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company is building apartments to rent for $9 per room per month. Four little rooms and a dining alcove, calculated as four-and-a-half rooms, for just a little under $500 a year. But there will be comparatively few of these apartments, and already there is a long waiting list. A few of the better paid of our Two-Thirds may find room there.

Away out toward Coney Island there is feverish construction—little rows of ugly, badly built wooden structures. They are sold, as fast as they are constructed, for $4750 with the land. Most of the thousands of two-family and single-family houses in Queens and Brooklyn sell for from seven thousand to fifteen thousand dollars. Interest, taxes and coal will cost the owner far beyond the $500 that limits the Two-Thirds.

How then are we going to get adequate homes for the majority of the population? Sanguine readers may prophesy that the law of supply and demand, given a long enough run, will solve the problem. If we build enough $20-a-room apartments, there will be an over-supply sooner or later, and then they will be rented at less—and the older ones for still less—so on down the scale until the family whose income does not warrant the expenditure of more than $500 a year for rent will be reached; and even the families now housed in the dirty, dark rooms of the old-law tenements. Waiting for the law of supply and demand to work its magic is a weak hope for the thousands who have waited half a lifetime.

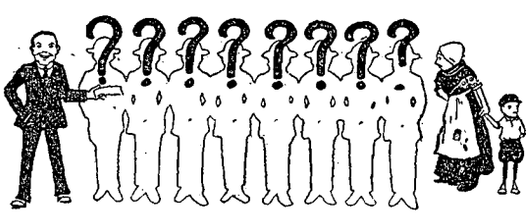
It is true that a great part of the population of New York has never been able to live in new houses, and has always had to be content with left-overs. But what has happened during the emergency of the last few years is that those who had adequate homes in the past are gradually being forced into smaller and less adequate homes; they are finding their incomes inadequate to pay for present housing. Not only those who have accepted in silence the conditions of the slums, but also more articulate parts of the population are now suffering. It is this group which speaks for itself that is bringing the housing problem and the demand for a constructive solution to the fore as a problem of state.

CLARENCE S. STEIN

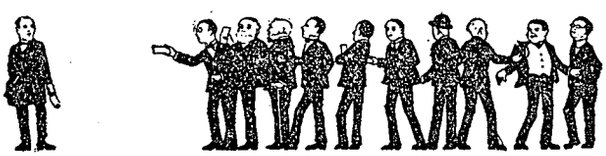
Pooled Gifts for 1924

THROUGH good report and evil report the financial federations continue to increase and multiply. The total sum pledged in the fall campaigns (between October 1 and December 31, 1923) in 82 cities that have reported to the American Association for Community Organization is $30,885,304. Twenty-two of these chests were new. The other sixty raised $25,818,704 this year as against $23,912,832 the year before. There are of course many chests whose campaigns come at other seasons of the year. More than 3000 social agencies, all told, will participate in federated campaigns for their current expenses for the year 1924: the giving of cities and towns with a total population of 21,622,419 will thus be pooled.

Generally speaking the open season for campaigns this winter has been a highly successful one. The old chests in Cleveland and Detroit met their quotas, Cleveland raising slightly less than last year, Detroit 10 per cent more than in 1922. Philadelphia, operating without an imported campaign adviser, raised $2,900,000 against a quota of $3,009,000. Milwaukee, which has passed through several reorganizations, had its first notably successful campaign in several years, exceeding its goal of $655,000 by $45,000. Only one chest, that in Jackson, Michigan, is known to have suspended.



Out of every 11 persons in Indianapolis, one gave to the Community Fund last year, two were directly benefited by it, and eight neither gave nor received.



There were 3000 contributors to social agencies in Indianapolis in 1917; 30,196 subscribed to the Community Fund in 1923.

From a campaign leaflet of the Indianapolis Community Fund

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Among the 22 new chests which held their first campaign during this period special interest attaches to Columbus, which looked and looked and looked again before it leapt, but fully justified its deliberate procedure by raising nearly 25 per cent more than was asked for: $600,000 against a quota of $454,445. Newark, New Jersey, did well to get $800,000 of $1,100,000 which was set as the goal; the preparatory work was handicapped by the untimely death of Robert I. McCartney, whose leadership in the early stages of the project was sane and progressive. The others broke about even, more than half exceeding their quotas, and none falling far below.

It is interesting to note that 11 of the new chests were in cities of less than 100,000. There are now 45, all told, in cities of less than 30,000—a class which presents peculiar difficulties because there is seldom money enough in the general pool to support a continuous full-time office, without which the educational work of the federated group is necessarily much hampered. The American Association for Community Organization is now making a special study of the problems of these small federations.

THE Welfare Federation of the Oranges, New Jersey, which turns in a report of financial success year after year, has analyzed its figures for five years with a result which may be significant, though parallel returns from many chests should be studied before conclusions can be drawn. In the Oranges, at least, the share of the "large givers" in the total pool of gifts is growing smaller each year. Out of a total varying from about $34,000 to nearly $40,000, contributions of $500 or more formed 55.2 per cent in 1920, 50.7 per cent in 1921, 46.7 per cent in 1922, 45.2 per cent in 1923, and 44 per cent in the last campaign. While the share of givers who contribute from $100 to $500 has not greatly changed, the proportion of the total given in sums of $10 to $100 has risen from 19 to 28.2 per cent.

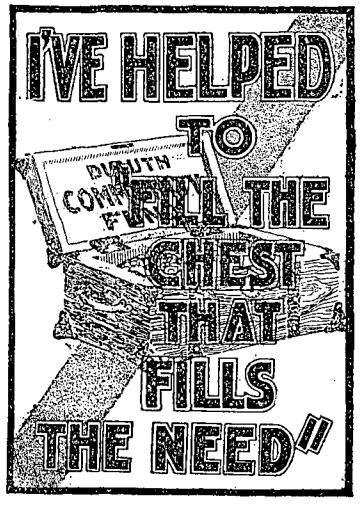
IT looked for a time as if the little girl on crutches who always travelled with the label Suppose Nobody Cared? was going to become the trademark of the community fund. As one thumbs over the new campaign material there seem to be several newer devices—though for the most part it is clear that publicity people in this field are playing safe and saving money by sticking to standardized material. The little girl reappeared in Philadelphia in a new incarnation: Jessie Willcox Smith gave her a wistful face and soft colors and lifted her to a new artistic level. Cleveland made use of a Leyendecker poster showing a youngster with a Christmas basket, a dog, and a contagious Irish grin. Columbus used a cartoon contrasting the many tag-days of the old regime with the once-a-year appeal. These three devices, of course, do not rise much above the rudiments of appeal psychology: they exploit "charity," or the giver's convenience.

Dayton struck a fresher note with the newsboy (also with a friendly dog) who counted out his own pennies for the Fund, with the caption Those Who Know, Give (see The Survey, January 15, 1923, pp. 376, 377, for this and the Cleveland poster); here was a real hint of joint community effort. Cincinnati will be worth watching in its spring campaign, after the admirable emphasis on constructive service in its last poster (The Survey, October 15, 1923). Duluth's neat slogan and poster, reproduced here, omitted the personal touch which is orthodox publicity, but apparently without detriment to the campaign. It is amusing to find Montreal, with its bilingual campaign, falling back on the exhortation "Ayez du coeur."

MEANWHILE the whole movement is the gainer by a continuous effort to work out a wider understanding of underlying principles, to improve technique, and to probe beneath the surface of the campaign reports that may mean much or little as an index to the health of community effort. The American Association for Community Organization has greatly increased its service during the past year and a half, since the National Information Bureau, Inc., became its secretary. It is now circulating a series of bulletins which range widely over the problems faced by federations, and is constantly engaged in field consultations with cities which have, or which contemplate, some form of pooled giving for the support of social agencies.

WASN'T there a figure in the Virginia Reel in which the boys in one line, and the girls in the other facing them, marched towards each other and then backed away? Social agencies behave much that way. Sometimes they're advancing and seem just about to meet, then they all start backing away again. Community organization consists of catching them at the right turn of the figure and restraining their impulse to back away unduly. In Boston getting together is the prevailing mood. The annual report of the Council of Social Agencies lists an impressive number of consolidations and mutual consultations among diverse agencies. The Children's Aid Society and the Boston Society for the Care of Girls joined hands; the Instructive District Nursing Association and the Baby Hygiese Association united and then welcomed the Dietetic Bureau into the new household; Country Work and the Farrington Memorial signed a treaty; the Family Welfare Society took in two suburban agencies; a group survey of girl care and a joint Bureau for the Aged were begun for common counsel. Not all these steps were suggested or shared in by the council, but it feels rightly that the spirit of cooperation which it fosters is contagious. Next year the council hopes to bring about a central office project for many of its members.

ONE of Boston's smaller but not less progressive neighbors, Springfield, is a lap ahead in this respect. It has already put a joint officing scheme into effect. The Community Welfare Association, a financial federation with which a council of social agencies is associated, has leased a four-story building in a central location (Market Street, near State) in which ten agencies beside the association and council will have their headquarters. It is hoped that the United Hebrew Charities and the Society of St. Vincent de Paul will take space later. There is room for joint clinical and service arrangements and for small assemblies.



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SOCIAL PRACTICE

Celery Child or Strawberry Child?

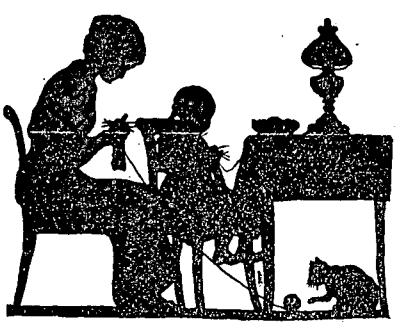
ALTHOUGH five years of working and playing and living with children in an institution show that great gains have been made by almost every child, these years also force a realization of certain handicaps charactertistic of institutional life, which must be frankly faced and understood if they are to be overcome.

To most minds, the word "institutionalism" spells a thin, passive, washed out, unreal sort of life—a life without richness, depth, color, or the adventure of tremendous effort. We accept the descriptive phrase "institutional type" of child. It calls to mind a type indeed, rather than an individual with strength or character enough to stand out in any way among his fellows. And this is true in spite of modern kindness and good physical care. Some subtler vitamine of environment is still non-existent in the majority of even our best children's institutions. What is it we lack?

Four or five tremendous needs of children are insistently borne in upon me as I live with the girls in Carson College. None of these needs is new. To mention them is platitudinous. And yet to *secure* in an institution the essentials for the vital life we want for children, is a never ending challenge.

The Need for "Mother"

The first great need (how well we know it, and how difficult it is to act upon our knowledge) is a need for *"mother,"* or for some person who feels like mother. This is not a need for the kind of mother who "eats up" her children, or the kind who is constantly over-critical, over-interfering, too omnipresent—both of these being familiar types of selfish mothers. But it is a need for some personal security in relation to people, for a family background that feels permanent, for a loyalty that will weather any storm. It is at least some background of real personal interest, some special understanding of herself, that each child needs.



To even approximately meet this need of children who must be given either institutional or foster care, takes constant thought and effort. *Some* staff changes are inevitable, and for certain children even the smaller cottage groups seem to be too large. And the relationship that the youngster needs is a much closer one than can be had with any executive. No amount of "efficiency" can call it into being. Yet, with child after child who seems at first unsettled, disorganized, distracted, not concentrated, or else pathetic and seeking, or just plain bad—it is from the time she finds some one who *feels like "mother"* or at least like "family" that things get better. Sometimes this is very slow. Children who have been knocked about protect themselves with a hard shell. They are on their guard. They don't quite dare to become attached. They have been too hurt before, and the result is a shallowness of relationship that is typically institutional. All this has to be overcome.

It *can* be overcome. There are many children in Carson College who have found in their housemother the security of permanent personal interest and attachment which they have sought. And with this security they have been freed to go forth with full energy into activities outside.

A Place That Feels Like Home

A second need is for a *"home" that physically feels like home.*

What makes a given place or building, feel like home?

A snail makes its shell from its own body and it takes a philosopher to decide whether or not the shell is a part of the snail's individual self or not. That is probably what makes the shell feel so much like home. One of the most ecstatic plays of children is making a play house, which may mean burrowing in a snowdrift, or hiding in a packing box, or digging a cave in a clay bank, or tunneling in a hay mow, or perching on a few boards in the apple tree out of sight. Aren't our own houses, when they really feel like home, just an extension of this play, though we, as grown-ups, may get our feeling of satisfaction out of tight roofs, snug windows and warm efficient furnaces? That is because we know about roofs and windows and furnaces and have had something to do with their success. A house to feel like home must be an extension of personality. The selection and arrangement of furniture, the planning of the garden, must be to some extent an expression of individual taste. We like to feel that our home physically grows up around us bit by bit as we grow with it, not so different, after all, from the homely shell of the snail. And this sense of home does not depend on grandeur nor on unusual beauty, nor even on efficiency. It depends almost entirely upon *participation.* If a family can do something with the house it lives in, that house begins to seem like home; if a child can do something with her own room, that room becomes her retreat, her sanctum, her castle. In the little children's bedroom in Mother Goose Cottage every month I find the youngsters have moved their beds to a different place and changed their little tables, their doll furniture, their playthings, and the whole order of the room. One thinks of the cat who moves round and round till she finds just the place where she wants to lie. These youngsters move their things round and round until they finally feel that the room and everything in it fits them better. In three of our cottages the children have had a part in painting and decorating the walls and furniture. This has been one way of giving them the

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physical participation in home which they seem to need.

Institutions have a hard time to meet this instinct, however, because they must be planned and arranged by a management far away from the youngster who lives there, and in consequence they are nearly always too perfect. The floors are too good to be played on; the walls too good for pictures to be tacked. They seldom have backyards or attics to make up for the excellent housekeeping in the regular living rooms.

An attic and a backyard are the inherited right of every child whose home is otherwise planned and run for the adults of the family. There he can play with things as he feels the need. There he should find the shelter of a wood shed, the companionship of chickens, and the drama of animal life and growing things, with the struggle to keep rabbits and chickens from eating the garden, cats and dogs from eating the rabbits and chickens, and neighbors and automobiles from killing the cats and dogs. Such a backyard compels participation. The youngster's life is memorable. His contacts with the world are vivid. There is neither need nor opportunity for vague day-dreaming and institutional passivity.

Institutions *can* provide this sort of environment for children if the management understands the need and is willing to break with institutional tradition. Tradition and expectation, however, call for nothing but "front yard." Backyards are revolutionary.

The Need for Economic Experience

A third need is for *economic participation,* and much of our whole administrative scheme in Carson College is built upon our attempt to meet this need.

Where do things come from? How much do they cost? How are they obtained?

However the board and the executive may struggle for economy, however the purchasing agent may shop around to get the lowest prices, these efforts for economy mean nothing to the children of an institution unless they have some share in the effort. In the ordinary home the buying of a piano is a matter of family planning for months. The children hear it discussed. They know it cannot be bought this month because father's insurance is due, and if they buy it next month the Christmas celebration must be very modest. They hear about the different styles of pianos, the different makes, and discuss new pianos versus "used" ones. They hear discussed the term of payment, whether by installments or in one lump sum. When the piano comes it is something to be stroked and patted and hovered over and cared for, and when the bill comes they know how long they have waited and just what has been given up to make the piano possible. This is real economic participation and it adds much vividness to the values of life. But it requires constant imagination to see how such participation can be brought about in an institution. Decisions have to be made by the management. An institution's standard has to be kept up and in consequence the children have a sense of a sudden abundance of things coming out of the blue. They have not gone through the waiting period and do not think of things in terms of having gone without them. In fact, the sooner the old things are worn out or lost or soiled, the sooner new things come. They come from somewhere, from the board or the office or the store-room, and the children easily get the feeling that they ought to have certain things. They hear the executive say that they ought to have rubbers, they ought to have mittens, they ought to have sweaters. It is some one's responsibility, not theirs, to provide these things for them. A totally unreal world is the result, a world of no individual responsibility, where individual effort and care means nothing, brings nothing.

Carson College has overcome this handicap to a great extent by means of the cottage and clothing budgets. Each girl (when she is not earning money outside has an allowance for clothing which begins at $5.00 a month during her sixth and seventh years and reaches $10.00 a month when she is sixteen and seventeen. Each cottage is on a budget with a definite allowance per person for provisions, laundry, and the rest. Thus the base of responsibility has been changed from a remote office to each family group and to the individual herself.

Budgeting is the only institutional device I know to bring to the children some economic understanding. But even a budget is thin compared to the interest a family has in spending its own money, money which has been worked for by its own members. Even at Carson College we renew painting and mend roofs with no participation on the part of the children in the problem of cost. There is always a housemother paid her regular salary, and the income fluctuations of a struggling father of a family are unknown. Our children cannot have that vicarious sense of economic responsibility which they would feel if they lived with parents who went out to work from morning to night to earn money to support them.

The only possible way to counteract this is to give the children every possible experience in earning money themselves. Earning, spending, giving, and saving, are experiences they ought to have. Even with half grown children a complete sense of financial irresponsibility—the belief that somebody owes one a living—is dangerous. A chance to work outside, and to earn, should be welcomed by the child herself as well as by her housemother as an opportunity.

An illustration of what earning money means to a girl is afforded by Elizabeth Baker. During the summer she earned, by interior painting and staff supper work, $23.17. This she had in her purse when she went to town with her housemother at the end of the term and bought:

One dress for	$5.00
Another dress for	1.00
A third dress for	1.00
A hat for	3.95
A pair of shoes for	6.50
Total	$17.45

Elizabeth is not a pretty girl, but she looked over a large mass of marked down dresses and was quick and unhesitating in her choice. Suitable dresses, becoming dresses, with good color and good lines for her own face and figure, she

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brought back and spread on the table at home to show the other members of the family. That was an experience of reality that belonged to her individually, and it was a very thrilling, unforgettable one.

The Need for a Sense of Freedom

A fourth need is for a *sense of freedom in personal and family life in relation to the neighborhood.*

In the best and most truly American homes there is, on the part of the parents, both an acceptance of community responsibility, and a realization of independence, of freedom of conscience and of integrity of action in the discharge of that responsibility. This is very hard to duplicate in an institution.

These normal parents we call to mind, in a way, have chosen their own neighborhood and share direct responsibility for their church. If the Sunday School is weak or the music poor or the minister underpaid, they must do what they can to make things better. If the Fire Company is ill-equipped or the school house out of date, again their own efforts must be called upon to make things better. Not only their taxes and their votes are needed, but their contributions, their time, their discussion, their courageously expressed opinion.

The efforts of these normal parents for a better community are rewarded by their accomplishments. The neighborhood is an extension of the home, and neighborhood improvements bring the same satisfaction to the one who has worked for them as do improvements in his own house and garden. And the freedom and community effort of these normal parents are, of course, shared and absorbed by their children. In fact, the courage and integrity which we think of as typical of America have many of their roots in this very family independence.

Such family independence is difficult to attain in any institution organization. For one thing the masculine element is usually represented too little on the staff. But perhaps more important than that, is the very nature of institution organization. The housemother's independence as head of her family is limited in a dozen ways. She doesn't choose her own doctor and dentist, but follows the direction of the institution doctor. She can't be a pillar in the Lutheran Church, perhaps, because one of her children is Catholic, and the institution might be criticized for proselyting. She hesitates to offer her time to help at a church supper, feeling that her time is not her own; it belongs to the institution. She hesitates to bake a cake for the Fire Company without first calling up the office. In fact, she can't feel quite the same toward the community as do her neighbors. Her stay depends not only upon her own volition, but upon the will of the management. And the inevitable criticism for independent action not quite in line with the policy of the institution brings an inevitable flattening and routinizing effect. It is safer not to be too independent, but to wait for precedent or direction. Initiative, which is hard enough under any circumstances, becomes still harder in an institution. And yet it is initiative we most wish to develop in our children.

It is an interesting process to feel how powerful is this routinizing process. Efficient administration seems to demand it. But the effect is not lost upon the children. Institution children in a classroom have too much the same daily background. Their vocabulary, even their slang, is too much the same. Their play, the way they spend their leisure time, their talk at home, all are too much alike. The consequent discussion in class lacks the vigor and spice of a public school, where each child comes from a different kind of home with a different kind of background and a father who earns the living in a different kind of occupation.

What is the remedy?

Variety is one remedy. That is, in an institution organized upon the cottage plan, *differences* in buildings and furnishings, *and in housemothers,* lend color and interest to the whole. That children should not be dressed alike in an institution is now an accepted truism. But our homes and furniture are still too much a single pattern.

Decentralization, or the participating responsibility of the staff in management, is another remedy. If the head of a cottage family in an institution is to be a person of strength and courage and character, he or she must also be a person who shares responsibility.

For our children, the remedy lies in as wide, free and vital outside community contacts as possible. How can our children in the local churches and Sunday Schools give as well as receive? How can they contribute of themselves to the social life of the neighborhood? The institution pull will always be against it. Town and gown tend to be separate unless every effort is made on the part of the board, administration and staff to eliminate the barrier.

The Great Need for Adventure

Perhaps the fifth need or lack in typical institutional life, is a summary of the four that have already been described. It is *the tendency of the usual institution to sap the adventure of life*—the intensity, effort, joy and grip of life. As described above, the typical institutional child has a difficult time to find expression for a deep, permanent, emotionally satisfying love for parents and family. He finds it difficult to make his environment really his home, because it is too immutable. He seldom feels the excitement of economic competition, and rarely the warmth and stir of personal courage and independence in relation to the community.

Further than this, it is considered the sign of a well run institution to foresee the unexpected and forestall the emergency. If the housemother is away her substitute is there like clockwork to take her place. If some one is ill, the nurse is called; if the fire goes out, the furnace man will fix it; if the horse runs away, it is the farmer's responsibility. In other words, the children seldom have to *rise* to an occasion because of the very excellence of the organization. They are not called upon to put every effort they can summon to meet a family emergency. The institution almost protects the children too securely. Regulations made for the protection of the weaker children must apply to the stronger ones as well. It is true that institution children need more protection than do children living with their parents. But they suffer from it, too.

Again the question of the remedy for this institutional handicap is our problem. Perhaps recognizing the danger

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in the institutional tendency toward what is safe, protected, usual, traditional, accepted and in-growing is the best way to fight it. Children are like plants, and while the celery type of young girl may be very attractive (made tender and delicate by being shut away from contact with the elements), she cannot fight her way alone in a stormy world at the age of eighteen. The strawberry grower hardens his plants by exposing them to cold before the final transplanting from the hot bed to the garden. It takes more courage to expose growing children to the blasts of outside experience than to expose strawberry plants. But such a course may be the best assurance for a strong and hardy future.

ELSA UELAND

. . . the Proposal of the Delegate of the U. S. A.

THE international traffic in women and children is to be studied by a commission of experts working under the auspices of the Council of the League of Nations. Abraham Flexner has been appointed chairman of this commission and the American Social Hygiene Bureau has appropriated $75,000 to finance it.

It will be recalled that this traffic has been the subject of international legislation or international agreement for legislation since 1902. The United States was an active participant at every step prior to the League of Nations conference in 1921. On the basis of recommendations there offered a new convention was drawn up which made an advance over the convention of 1910 in that the contracting parties agree to take measures to discover and prosecute persons engaged in the traffic in children of both sexes, to secure the punishment of persons attempting to entice or procure women and girls for immoral purposes, to license and supervise employment agencies, and in connection with immigration and emigration to adopt such administrative and legislative measures as to check the traffic in women and children.

Among the other recommendations of the commission of 1921 was one that a permanent advisory committee on the traffic in women and children should be created by the Council of the League of Nations, which would serve as a committee of experts to watch developments in this field and to consider ways in which the traffic might be prevented.

The advisory committee was appointed and met in June and July of 1922. Its membership included representatives of the British Empire, Denmark, France, Italy, Japan, Poland, Roumania, Spain and Uruguay and "assessors" for several international private organizations engaged in combating the traffic. This committee requested the League of Nations to invite Germany and the United States to send representatives to the advisory committee. This suggestion was accepted by the council. The United States responded to the invitation by designating Grace Abbott, chief of the Children's Bureau, as its representative.

Miss Abbott attended the session of the committee held in Geneva last March, at which the following recommendations, among others, were submitted:

The advisory committee recommends that the council should again draw the attention of all governments to the desirability of adhering to or ratifying the convention of 1921 without delay.

The advisory committee recommends that the council should be asked to obtain, with the collaboration of the International Labor Office, information on the following matters relating to the emigration of women and children: (*a*) Arrangements for the protection of emigrants and transmigrants before departure. (*b*) Regulations providing for their protection during the voyage. (*c*) Measures taken to accommodate and to find employment for them on arrival. (*d*) Treatment of undesirables.

The voluntary associations should be asked to supply such information on these matters as they can furnish from their own experience or inquiries.

The advisory committee, having, at the request of the third assembly of the league, examined the question of the employment of foreign women in licensed houses, recommends that, pending the abolition of the system of state regulation, no foreign woman should be employed or carry on her profession as a prostitute in any licensed houses.

The advisory committee requests the council of the league to authorize the issue of a questionnaire to the members of the league, asking those states which have a system of regulation for a full report of its workings and results, together with a statement of the grounds on which it is advocated, and those states which previously had a system of regulation but have abandoned it, for a report of the reasons that led them to take this course and of the results which have followed their action.

The advisory committee, having regard to the useful work done by women police in countries where they have been employed, recommends that women as well as men should be employed among the police engaged in dealing with prostitution.

The advisory committee recognizes the great value of the proposal made by the delegate of the United States of America. A general study of the conditions under which the traffic in women and children is carried on would form a valuable source of information for the advisory committee.

The advisory committee suggests that the council might appoint an expert or experts to undertake a study on the spot, with the collaboration of the governments of the countries concerned and in consultation with any expert whom they may desire to nominate; and if the principle of such a study commends itself to the council the committee would like to see the work undertaken without delay.

With few changes these recommendations were accepted by the Council of the League. The appropriation of the American Social Hygiene Bureau is to finance the study recommended by Miss Abbott and approved by the advisory committee and the council.

Hiking While They Pray

ONE of the most tangible and hopeful results of the new spirit of inter-racial cooperation in Georgia is the oncoming of the Atlanta School of Social Work. The project was launched at the National Conference of Social Work in New Orleans in 1920; it has been fostered by the earnest desire of southern white and colored people to work out some plan whereby promising young Negro men and women may get experience in the methods and practice of social work; the school is beginning to win recognition both from social workers and from the general public.

In his inspiring history of the charity organization movement in the United States, Mr. Watson intimates that the colored people were the last to be taken into account in the spread of this movement over the South. This is true only in part. When the public mind pictured an associated charities as merely dealing in "cash and commodities," the colored people got a large share of cast-off clothing and ill considered dollars. Even today, in quaint corners of the South, we hear of a pseudo-family-welfare society employing a colored nurse of the old, pleasant, soothing type, who is

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actually sent into the homes of "poor whites" to see what they need and take it to them. One can almost see the ante-bellum chariot and the benevolent mistress driving with her colored maid to deliver packages to the poor. We have not heard of the reaction of the poor whites to this type of investigator in their homes. It goes without saying that true inter-racial cooperation is not fostered thereby.

In Atlanta, however, the Anti-Tuberculosis Association and its parent society, the Associated Charities, always striving towards higher standards, began several years ago to engage and train Negro nurses and visitors for their colored clients. Other social agencies have been employing colored assistants, and it became apparent that a training school for such workers would be a necessary and important solvent for the problem of social service education for Negroes in the South. As the white people in smaller cities and communities began to adopt social service programs, their colored neighbors followed suit. But these programs could not be operated usefully without trained intelligence. There was need, moreover, for carrying forward the education of those who had started with the short courses of training in social work during the war.

The extreme poverty of the colored people emphasized the need for locating a school in the South. There is good material amoug young colored students in colleges and schools today, but the vast majority of them are forced to go to work as soon as they leave school or college, their families having made immense sacrifice to carry them that far. The accredited schools of social work are constantly raising their standards, and few young Negroes up to this time have been able to take their two-year courses. Those who do are immediately offered positions by agencies in the North to work among their own people there, since the influx of southern Negroes into northern cities in the last decade has created a crucial need for such workers. So it was felt that something must be done locally to help the situation in the South, where social workers are certainly not less needed than in the North. The Atlanta school was the result.

The school is inter-racial in its functioning; on its board of directors are representatives from five Negro colleges, an important white university, the Inter-racial Commission and Atlanta's health and social agencies. Lectures and conferences are held in a Negro college—Morehouse—which has freely offered the use of its classrooms. The Morehouse professor of social science, a young colored man who has had training in the New York School of Social Work, is the director of the school. Classes are held in buildings within a block or so of two other large colleges for Negroes. About two thousand young men and women, all together, are students in these institutions, so that naturally the planting of a school of social work here is proving of benefit—if only by advertising to these young people the fact that social work should be studied. Two or three miles away are several other large Negro institutions of college grade, one of them a well known theological seminary. The desire for social work training has reached this group also, and promising students will undoubtedly be recruited there.

Realizing the necessity for field training, the Associated Charities persuaded the Red Cross, in the fall of 1921, to pay the salary of a supervisor of field work and teacher of case method; a white social worker of many years' experience is now in charge of this end of the work. The development of this practice work holds a most promising future if the school succeeds in gaining the support it needs and is now seeking. In its community chest campaign Atlanta has raised more than half a million dollars to support 35 social agencies, five of them Negro organizations and others with Negro departments, which will thus be enabled to carry out long-cherished plans for progress.

State and national organizations also have their southern headquarters in Atlanta—The Young Women's Christian Association, The American Red Cross, the National Urban League, the State Council of Social Agencies and the State Department of Public Welfare, the Georgia Anti-Tuberculosis Association, the Georgia Children's Home Society and others. All these exhibit friendly interest and can be counted upon in the present and in the future to help with the training of students in field work.

The superintendent of public schools of Atlanta has shown a practical interest in social case work. There has been a wide demand this fall for extension courses; nearly 75 public school teachers are now taking courses in human behavior, case method, and Red Cross home nursing and hygiene. A group of young women soon to graduate in the normal department of another Negro college, are being given a course in case method and conferences are being held with women connected with the nearby theological seminary.

Years ago when the Boston and Baltimore Family Societies were urging the case for the volunteer worker it was pointed out that bringing volunteers together in a weekly meeting to discuss the case of families in distress was an almost miraculous method of doing away with religious prejudices. Episcopalians learned to associate with Methodists and both with Baptists and all these with Roman Catholics. Mutual distrust seemed to disappear. And so it is hoped that this school can help to demonstrate not only that social case method should be applied to what is termed family welfare work, but also that it can be applied to particular instances of needed race adjustment. White and colored people are already beginning to get together to find the best way of solving some of these problems. They are seeking the best thought of the day no matter where that thought appears.

Two little girls were late for school one morning. Annie said to Susie: "Let's kneel down here in the road and ask God to make us in time for school." "No," said Susie, "Let's run on to school and pray while we're hiking."

That is what we are beginning to do in Atlanta.

HELEN B. PENDLETON

A MOVEMENT is on foot, expressed by a resolution passed at the state conference of social work, to consolidate the county poor farms of South Carolina into districts. In one county, for example, the poor farm of 150 acres receives an annual appropriation of $4,000 to care for twelve inmates, four of whom are members of the superintendent's family. It is hoped, by consolidation of county farms into districts, that overhead can be reduced, and efficiency increased. The present plan is to form an experimental district in the northwest section of the state, which may serve as a model for further development.

IN CHARLESTON, South Carolina, the Juvenile Welfare Commission, which is supported by municipal appropriation, has extended its functions to include probation, parole from the industrial school, visiting teachers, family case work, children's aid and children's protective work.

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HEALTH

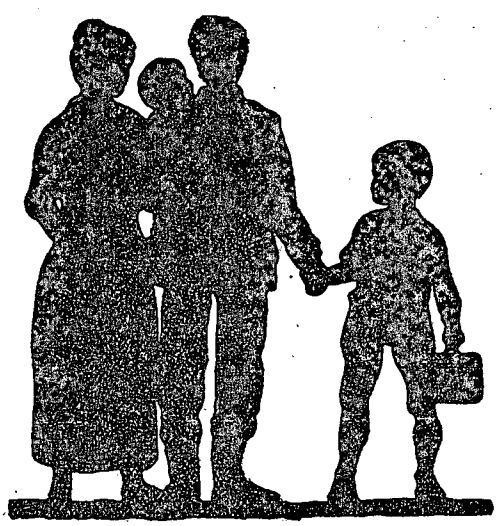
Fitter Families

"FITTER Families" is a follow-up of "Better Babies." As early as 1912 we began to sense the need of including more family history in making up scores for babies, but it was not until the spring of 1920 that we seemed to hit upon the right thing —that is, something in the way of a plan for promoting family fitness that would be of genuine worth and yet would have the popular appeal of the Baby Health Contest.

I think that credit for inspiring the idea should be given to Dr. Charles B. Davenport of the Carnegie Station for Experimental Evolution at Cold Spring Harbor, N. Y. We were jogging along, testing our babies according to the first score card, which was compiled by Dr. Margaret Clark of Waterloo, Iowa, in 1911, when a postcard came to my desk one morning. This postcard carried just one sentence signed with Dr. Davenport's name—"You should give 50 per cent to heredity before you begin to score a baby." I was so busy at the time trying to cover a correspondence of forty letters and more daily, asking how to put on Baby Health Contests, that I pigeon-holed the card and it passed from my mind until about a year later when another single sentence on a one cent postcard made me "set up and take notice." This sentence read "A prize winner at two may be an epileptic at ten."

I carried the two cards to Dr. Florence Brown Sherbon, who was one of the judges at that memorable first baby contest at the Iowa State Fair in 1911, and who probably had had as much experience in scoring babies as any one in the United States. She read them with interest and declared that some change must be made in our baby judging, adding, "My own observation corroborates these statements. Very often the high score baby has a bad heredity, and, judging from the rest of the family, cannot hold up." So we concentrated on a plan which would include heredity.

When the scheme of including the whole family was fairly well outlined a group of experts were called in to criticize it. They were unanimous in declaring the plan ideal, but they said it would not work. "You can bring the baby to the fair for health tests because he can't help himself, but you will never get the fathers and the mothers," they said. But we did get the whole family, and with very little effort. Although the experts doubted the popularity of the idea, they prepared the score card under the direction of Dr. Sherbon, who at that time was director of child hygiene in the state of Kansas. The chance to try it out came when Phil Eastman, secretary and manager of the Kansas Free Fair at Topeka, consented to furnish the necessary equipment and pay actual running expenses if managers, judges, clerks, etc. would give their time and pay their own personal expenses. The "Fitter Family Contest" was scheduled for the Kansas Free Fair the second week of September 1920.



A small building on the fair ground had been remodeled for our use by partitioning off eight booths with a center hall running full length. White kalsomine had made it beautifully clean inside. When the fair opened we were ready for business with an equipment made up of kitchen tables, folding chairs, scales, measuring instruments, color charts, etc. Although the doors to the booths were muslin curtains, a comfortable privacy was secured, and a sterilizing outfit was installed to ensure cleanliness.

Twenty families, including one hundred and one individuals, were examined and scored at this first contest. The examination consisted of family history, nervous and mental examinations, psychological tests, structural measurements, complete physical examinations and examinations of the eyes, ears, nose, throat and teeth. Laboratory tests included haemoglobin, Wasserman, and urinary analysis. When the experts were making the score card they declared that no one "would stand for" the Wasserman, but there never has been the slightest objection to it. The families are graded A, B, and C. We find a good many grade A individuals, but not very many Grade A families if the children are past their baby days. There is a surprisingly large number of ailments in these comparatively sound families. Bad teeth, bad tonsils, bronchitis, kidney complications, and a prevalence of pelvic disorders among mothers bring down the family score. Nearly every individual in one hundred families who were analyzed in statistics was scored off on teeth. At our first Kansas contest the highest score family, which consisted of a father, mother, and three children in their teens, received a silver trophy, the gift of Governor Allen. Senator Arthur Capper presented Capper Medals to all Grade A individuals, and the state board of health gave certificates to all persons who took the examination, stating their grade.

Four Fitter Family Contests now have been held at the Kansas Free Fair. The second year the entries were opened to childless couples and to young adults over seventeen. Each year the interest has increased, and there are always more requests for entries than space and equipment will permit. A "Eugenics Department" has been created at the Fair, with the

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"WE are past the experimental stage and ready to give our plan to the public," Mrs. Watts writes The Survey. "In fact we have been giving it out rather frequently of late. At the recent Rural Life Conference at St. Louis I begged ten minutes of the program. Of course that meant a hurried presentation. But when I sat down a gray-haired man tapped me on the shoulder and asked for my address saying that I had something he could use, and adding, "I am president of a women's college in Virginia." A moment later a man on the other side said, "May I have a score card?" It was Dr. C— of the American Medical Association. By the time he had finished I was talking with another man, who asked for a score card to use in a New York settlement. When I reached the lobby I found a long dark fellow who asked for the card for his sociology classes in Texas and added that the Texas fair should be interested. Next came a sociology professor from Minnesota, then a couple of students from Wisconsin. By that time I was selling the score cards, which belonged to Kansas. I began to feel that my place on the program had been worth while. But the end was not yet—for a young missionary bought the last card to carry with him to rural church people."

Fitter Family Contest and a Eugenics Exhibit from the Kansas State University which supplements the idea of family fitness.

This year the Tri-State Fair at Savannah, Georgia, gave the plan a try-out. Fourteen families and twenty-four adult individuals were examined. The idea was as popular in the South as in Kansas though the contest feature was omitted because of the limited time for preparations. People were eager to have the health tests and usually asked if they included blood analysis. Turpentine farmers with their broods of children came as readily as the wheat farmers or farmers who raise livestock. In both Kansas and Georgia the farm population accounted for about half the entries. The other half included lawyers, merchants, book-keepers, aviators, salesmen, teachers, and clerks. In Kansas the rank in education had always been so exceedingly high that I bragged about it at our first committee conference. "You may reach that class in Kansas, but here you will get no one but the poor whites," they declared. The average, however, was about the same as that of the first Kansas fair. There was no one of the parents who could not read or write, and the majority were high school graduates, with a liberal sprinkling of college people.

In general the health of the families has been very good. No one obviously ill is received for examination, because this is in no sense a clinic. We work from the angle that health is something of which one should be proud. The horticulturist brings his best fruit and flowers to the fair, the agriculturist his best grain and the stockman his finest specimens of livestock; then why not give parents the opportunity to show their fine families of boys and girls and stimulate others to improve the quality of their offspring?

We use the word "Eugenics" as a sign over the door of the building at the Kansas Fair where we test human stock, and it causes considerable discussion. When someone asks what it is all about, we say, "While the stock judges are testing the Holsteins, Jerseys, and Whitefaces in the stock pavilion, we are judging the Joneses, Smiths, and the Johnsons," and nearly every one replies: "I think it is about time people had a little of the attention that is given to animals." One day a farmer asked what eugenics meant. I stumbled around trying to remember the dictionary definition, but found that I was not making myself clear, and so got down to plain English and told him just what we were doing inside and what we were trying to teach. "We are telling these people that if two families have tuberculosis the boys and girls from these families should not intermarry, because their children would stand a double chance to contract the disease." He nodded his head and a look of comprehension came into his eyes as he added, "We never do that in stock raising."

A turpentine farmer came to the tent at Savannah one day when we were testing families. He wanted to find out what was going on, and a little persuading brought him and his family inside. The mother was anxious to have the two small children tested, and soon was persuaded to undertake a family examination, but the father had to be reached in another way. He became interested in family history. (The blanks provide spaces for the names of three generations.) He declared that he was the father of fourteen children. The first wife died at thirty-two, after bearing seven children, all but one of whom had died in infancy. "Although we had seven children in twelve years," he said, "we never had more than two children in the house at the same time, but this family," indicating the children with him, "is stout." The father was a well-built muscular man of about forty-two, and showed up well in all the physical tests, and the two babies who had come with them were sturdy. He was so much interested that he gave up a deer hunt, the first of the season, to bring the rest of the children the next day, and even the grandmother came along to be examined and to fill in gaps in the family history. When they left the mother declared that she had spent two profitable days at the fair and added, "This family is coming back next year, but we can't make much of a showing until our teeth are fixed up. A dentist is surely going to have a big job on this bunch."

We find that parents are tremendously interested in the health of their families and are seeking knowledge. Young men and young women are eager to know their own physical condition. Childless couples come timidly asking for information. The grandparents are brought along to give data on family history and stay to profit by laboratory tests. The interest is universal.

MARY T. WATTS

The Continuous Child

"SHOW me a thousand children throughout the length and breadth of this nation of wealth whose lives have been watched over as we believe a child life should be guarded from infancy to self-support under the care of health agencies," an editor of The Survey demanded recently in its columns. (Back to the Parent: A Sermon for Health Workers. Haven Emerson, M.D. November 15, 1923). Given a little time, one answer will come from New Jersey.

By asking for it, and planning to carry on the work if it proves successful, any community in New Jersey may obtain from the state department of health the staff to demonstrate the value and practicability of a Continuous Child Hygiene

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Program. As the name implies, the program postulates that although childhood may have its critical moments, on which attention may have to be concentrated if there are not enough workers or funds to go around, it is, nevertheless, a continuous process deserving of unified and continuous care. As the program has been worked out by the Bureau of Child Hygiene, of which Dr. Julius Levy is director, it includes the instruction and supervision of the midwife, and the supervision of the expectant mother, the baby, the young child and the school child. For purposes of unity and economy, all these parts of the plan are entrusted to one nurse, who visits homes and works through the Baby Keep-Well stations, the schools, etc. With her family cycle some of the extra-family aspects are coordinated—licensing and supervising of boarding homes for children, the licensing and supervising of maternity homes, the care of the unmarried mother, the prevention of blindness in infants, and the establishment of dental clinics.

Gloucester County, New Jersey, took on this program in 1922 through the Gloucester County Health Association, supported by the county superintendent of schools, and aided financially by the county Board of Freeholders which provided automobiles to make it possible for the nurses to cover the thirty-three communities in the county. The state department of health assigned a supervisor and six nurses to the district. In 1922 there were 12,180 children of school age and 1133 babies of less than one year in the county. The six nurses supervised more than half (7,031) of all the school children, and more than 60 per cent (713) of the babies, and in addition 1,009 other children too young to go to school and 640 expectant mothers. Their visits to individuals reached a total of more than 20,000. It must be understood that that does not mean 20,000 trips to different households, for in the nature of the plan, the nurse following up the physical examination of a school child to correct his defects, goes into the problems of the younger children, if there are any, and confers with the mother about herself.

One result, measured in statistics, is recorded in the contrast between an infant death-rate of 78.1 in 1921 before the work was started, and that of 63.5 in 1922. It is estimated that each death prevented indicated also the prevention of about ten serious illnesses, since the fatality rate in diseases of infancy is about 10 per cent. The prevention of ten cases of serious illness means the prevention of a much greater number of minor illnesses which may result in physical defects irremediable if discovered too late. The prevention of illness and mortality in childhood is the outcome of carrying the principles of maternal and child hygiene to the home and the mother, who carries the continuing responsibility.

Not only the statisticians and experts have been convinced that this policy pays. Two of the six nurses already have been taken over by municipalities, and taxpayers are urging the county authorities to take responsibility for the remainder. The work of the nurses with the pre-school children is carried out under the auspices of the local boards of health, and the work with the school children under the auspices of public school authorities. The state department of health continues to provide technical supervision and non-official agencies will continue to supply the transportation facilities for the nurses not provided for otherwise.

The Challenge of the Chronic Patient

SEVENTY years ago the so-called "chronic diseases" caused about one-fifteenth of the total number of deaths. Today, largely as a result of the decrease of infectious diseases and the lengthening of the span of life, they are responsible for one-half of all deaths. The problem of the proper institutional care of sufferers from such diseases has thus become of prime importance. Scientific study of chronic ailments, which can be pursued only in an institution, offers probably the most fruitful field of research during the coming year.

A recent survey of the leading institutions for chronic patients, most of which call themselves homes for incurables, shows that almost without exception the scientific study of disease is ignored, and even the importance of medical treatment is minimized. Apparently these institutions work on the principle that their patients are incurable, beyond all hope of even partial rehabilitation, and that their sole function is the maintenance of a home where such unfortunates may linger until they die.

If the provisions for chronic patients are inadequate in the private homes for incurables, it is self-evident that they are all the more so in the innumerable small county almshouses scattered throughout the country. Analysis of the 1910 census shows that nearly two-thirds of the 84,000 paupers enumerated in almshouses were suffering from a serious physical or mental defect. The death-rate was 207.7 per 1000 enumerated, and 17.9 per cent of the deaths were due to tuberculosis. The high death-rate was accounted for only in part by the advanced age of the occupants. Of 17,486 who died in 1910, 7,803 were under the age of 60, and 3,213 under 40. That conditions have not changed much in the last ten years is shown by the New York State figures for 1921, which reported that 67 per cent of the 8,732 inmates of almshouses were sick or infirm. In a few of the larger municipal almshouses some effort has been made to meet the problems which such a population presents, but even in them the budgetary allowance is too limited to allow of appropriate organization. And not without reason has it been said that "the county almshouse is a hospital with the hospital part left out."

It is not only the individual who suffers from this neglect. Many inmates of almshouses remain public pensioners for years. They are accepted as human derelicts who, to appease the rudimentary public conscience, must be supported and maintained, preferably where they will not be seen, until death relieves them and the taxpayer from further worry and responsibility. Yet many of them, if they were to get a fighting chance, could be rehabilitated and returned as useful members to the community.

What Does "Chronic" Mean?

What remedies may be sought to improve the institutions devoted to the care of chronic patients? It seems clear that the first step must, of necessity, be a widespread educational campaign that will reach not alone the superintendents and directors of the existing institutions but the community at large as well. Some disinterested and authoritative body will have to formulate and define the necessary institutional

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facilities demanded for the adequate care of these patients.

A chronic patient may be defined as one who requires hospital care for a period of from three months to several years. From the point of view of institutional care, these patients may be grouped into three categories: class "A"—those requiring medical study for diagnosis and treatment; class "B"—those requiring nursing care only; class "C"—those requiring custodial care only.

The management of each of these groups is a problem in itself and each class places different demands on institutional resources. It is most important to recognize that patients do not remain in one class indefinitely. Thus a patient may be admitted in class A and in the course of months improve sufficiently to become a purely custodial case. On the other hand, it is just as common for a patient in class B or in class C to develop some complication or aggravation of his illness, which places him in class A. Every class C patient who dies is a class A case during his terminal illness. The fact cannot be over-emphasized that the type of treatment demanded by the different groups varies considerably.

The proper care of a class A patient demands a complete hospital organization with a resident staff, an attending staff on which all of the specialties are represented, complete laboratory, x-ray and operating room equipment, skilled nursing and dietetic management. Class B patients require much less specialized attention but should command an excellent nursing service, controlled by a conscientious medical staff. Class C patients are retained in an institution not because they require hospital care but because poverty makes home care impossible. The problem is economic, not medical. All of their wants are supplied with due regard to their respective disabilities by proper sleeping and living accommodations and food. Thus, many will require wheel chairs and all of the structural institutional facilities which that implies, and many will need the assistance of attendants in dressing, bathing and eating.

The provision of an adequate number of beds for custodial cases is of importance for the sake not alone of the patients, but of their relatives as well. Such an individual frequently disrupts and pauperizes his family. A possible bread winner is compelled to stay at home to minister to his wants and a constant series of extra expenditures are involved in his care. In addition to this the presence of a chronic invalid, who often is querulous and exacting in his demands, slowly but surely undermines the morale of his family and encourages the acceptance of economic defeat.

It should cost almost as much to give adequate service to class A and B chronic patients as to patients with acute diseases. On the other hand it is a waste of funds to house custodial cases in a costly hospital plant, for they do not need intensive medical and nursing care, nor the other resources of the institution, such as the laboratories and the other special departments. Their need is primarily economic. They require a home, yet, before they can safely be classed as custodial cases, they demand careful study and the use of the facilities that the institution has at its command. After they have been declared custodial cases, they may at any time develop an acute complication which renders skilled medical and nursing service imperative.

They should therefore be housed in a separate building or ward, especially designed for their care, where they can be made comfortable and cared for at a minimum expense. The main institution should be reserved for patients who require the specialized facilities of a hospital, and for whom there is some hope of rehabilitation. An experienced graduate nurse should be in charge of the unit which houses the custodial cases and a physician from the main institution should visit the home periodically. A method of free transfer between the main institution and the home should be established.

When a custodial patient becomes ill with an intercurrent disease, he should be returned at once to the main institution. When a patient in the main institution no longer requires special hospital care and cannot be discharged because his relatives are not prepared to receive and care for him, he should be transferred to the custodial institution. Experience has shown that it is unwise to admit any patient directly as a custodial case without first passing him through the careful routine of the hospital. Thus a proper organization avoids the evils which are inevitably bound up with the present homes for incurables and, at the same time, escapes the unnecessary expense of maintaining custodial cases in an institution designed for the care of hospital patients.

The patients who are the subject of this discussion form the bulk of the physician's private practice. Because of the complexity and chronicity of their illnessses they are among the most difficult whom he is called on to treat. A well equipped and well organized hospital for chronic diseases gives a valuable opportunity for continued study to the physicians on its staff and enables them to transfer to the community represented by their practices the advancement in the knowledge of chronic diseases achieved by cooperative investigation in an institution. Every medical student should receive part of his training in a chronic hospital. Progress in all lines of human endeavor depends on systematic and coordinated study. The community that neglects its members who are suffering from chronic diseases pays for its carelessness by receiving less efficient medical service. It becomes the duty of every institution that cares for the chronic sick not alone to harbor these unfortunates until the disease has run its course, but also to be equipped for the study of the causes of the chronic ailments of mankind with a view to prevention.

The nursing requirements of chronic patients merit special mention because of the fact that it is generally assumed that they may be adequately met by the employment of attendants. A few days' active participation in the work of a hospital for chronic diseases that is trying faithfully to serve its patients will convince any one that class A and B patients need the very best of intelligent, sympathetic and interested nursing care. Such an institution, if it is of sufficient size, offers excellent material for the education of pupil nurses, if proper affiliations are arranged. The psychology of a chronic patient differs considerably from that of a patient ill only a few weeks. A nurse who has learned to handle such an individual is better qualified for all branches of her work than is the nurse acquainted only with acute cases. Moreover, the scientific study of disease is impossible unless the patient material is controlled by an interested and accurate nursing personnel. Attendants find their proper sphere of usefulness in the care of purely custodial patients, provided they are under careful supervision and are completely separated from the other nursing groups. If they do not see many special nursing procedures they do not acquire false notions as to their ability. Chronic patients are often very trying and their management calls for particular skill,

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tact and forbearance on the part of the nursing staff. An efficient and sympathetic nursing service must be built around a large nucleus of graduate nurses.

Out of the Almshouses

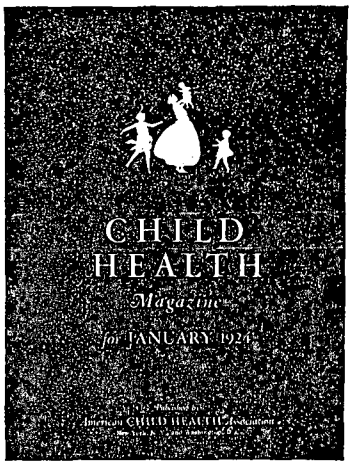
To fulfil these or similar conditions will demand a radical change in existing institutions. It is impossible to expect the small county almshouses, with limited budgets, to furnish adequate facilities for their inmates. Provisions, therefore, will have to be made for large central institutions, probably under the direction of the state governments, supported by a pro rata subsidy from the different counties. Such institutions could be conducted along the proper lines and could give to their inmates the medical, nursing and custodial care which they demand. The development will be analogous to the movement which removed the insane from the almshouse and assembled them in large state hospitals.

Every institution caring for chronic cases must be regarded as composed of three elements: 1. A hospital through which every case must pass on admission for thorough physical examination and study with the aid of all of the accessory departments of a general hospital, such as laboratories and the x-ray department, and for prolonged medical treatment when necessary (Group A); 2. a nursing home for chronic invalids (Group B); 3. a custodial institution for those economically unable to secure an adequate home for themselves (Group C). The institution must recognize that any patient may at any time pass from one group to another; that all B and C cases pass into class A before death; and, therefore, that a system of ready transfer between the several departments must be established. A home for incurables or an almshouse should have no independent existence without immediate access to complete hospital facilities.

ERNST P. BOAS, M.D.

HERCULES AND PINOLE are two little towns in Contra Costa County, California, with a combined population of less than 1,500. In 1921 there were 38 cases of diphtheria in the towns, and in January 1922, six more. They resolved that since diphtheria could be stamped out, it would be. In February 317 Schick tests were made, and 222 of the 232 children who showed positive reactions were immunized with toxin-antitoxin. Re-tests were made in August, and those still positive received toxin-antitoxin again. Since March 1922, when one child, whose parents had refused to permit him to be treated, contracted the disease, there has been not a single case of diphtheria in the Hercules-Pinole school district. The cost of stamping out the disease among these 350 children was $296, less than a dollar a child. Each town paid $100 for the services of the special deputy health officer; parents paid in $63.90 at the rate of ten cents per dose toward the cost of the toxin-antitoxin, and the remaining $32.10 was contributed by the Pinole Chapter of the American Red Cross.

NEW HAVEN, with the more complex problems of a larger city, carried through a lively Schick campaign under its Health Demonstration Center (See The Survey: November 15, 1923, p. 222) and now is extending the work to the rest of the city. In a quarter not previously exposed to the idea, they proceed as follows, according to Dr. John L. Rice, the health officer: "A moving picture on the Schick Test is circulated in the theatre in the neighborhood, supplemented with slides advising the people of the school district that on a definite date their children, school and pre-school, will be tested after the consent of the parents is given. Next a talk is given to the teachers of the school, with a demonstration of the Schick test on several children and several teachers. The day following the school district is divided in a number of sections and a nurse sent into each section to explain and get consents from parents for pre-school children. Next a talk is given to the children in each room, at which time each pupil is given a consent slip to take home for signature. The following day the consent slips are received and the test is started on both the school and the pre-school children. It has been possible to complete the pre-testing program in a week and certain morning hours for four weeks are required for the testing and inoculations."



WITH the January issue Mother and Child, with its familiar brown cover and small format, has ceased to be, and in its place appears the blue and white Child Health Magazine, presenting the same international field of child health with the added advantages of a large page, large type, and paper admirably suited to reproduction. The new name expresses more clearly the relation of the magazine to the great adventure in amalgamated effort undertaken by the American Child Health Association, and the new dress should make even more pleasantly available the mass of valuable material for which those interested have relied on Mother and Child.

IN A RECENT SURVEY of the legal provisions for protecting children's eyesight, the Eye Sight Conservation Council of America declares that only twenty states have statutes providing for eye tests, and in only thirteen is the law mandatory for all districts. Many of the existing laws are not observed or enforced. The council believes that less than one-third of the children in the country are receiving visual tests, though it is estimated that 60 per cent of the school children are suffering from a defect of sufficient severity to warrant correction. The report declares that the responsibility lies with the state boards of education, which "should issue mandatory regulations providing for the conduction of eye tests in every urban and rural school in the state."

"FRAMINGHAM," which to health workers spells "Health and Tuberculosis Demonstration," came to a close on January 1, 1924, after seven years in which it set a model and established a procedure for the series of social laboratories which are testing the progress and process of building public health in as many states. The most important single discovery made during its course, according to the National Tuberculosis Association, which directed the enterprise, was the value of the consultation service for physicians in the diagnosis of early illness, which in this case will be carried on for 1924 under the health committee of the Framingham Civic League.

ORANGES may be as valuable as milk in a mid-morning school lunch to improve nutrition. In a recent study in Oakland, California, reported by Margaret S. Chaney in the American Journal of the Diseases of Children, the growth following the use of oranges in the supplementary lunch averaged more than 100 per cent above the expected gains, even surpassing in these cases the gains promoted by milk. Possibly the result may be due to the presence of all three vitamines in oranges, and the property, ascribed to Vitamin B, of promoting appetite.

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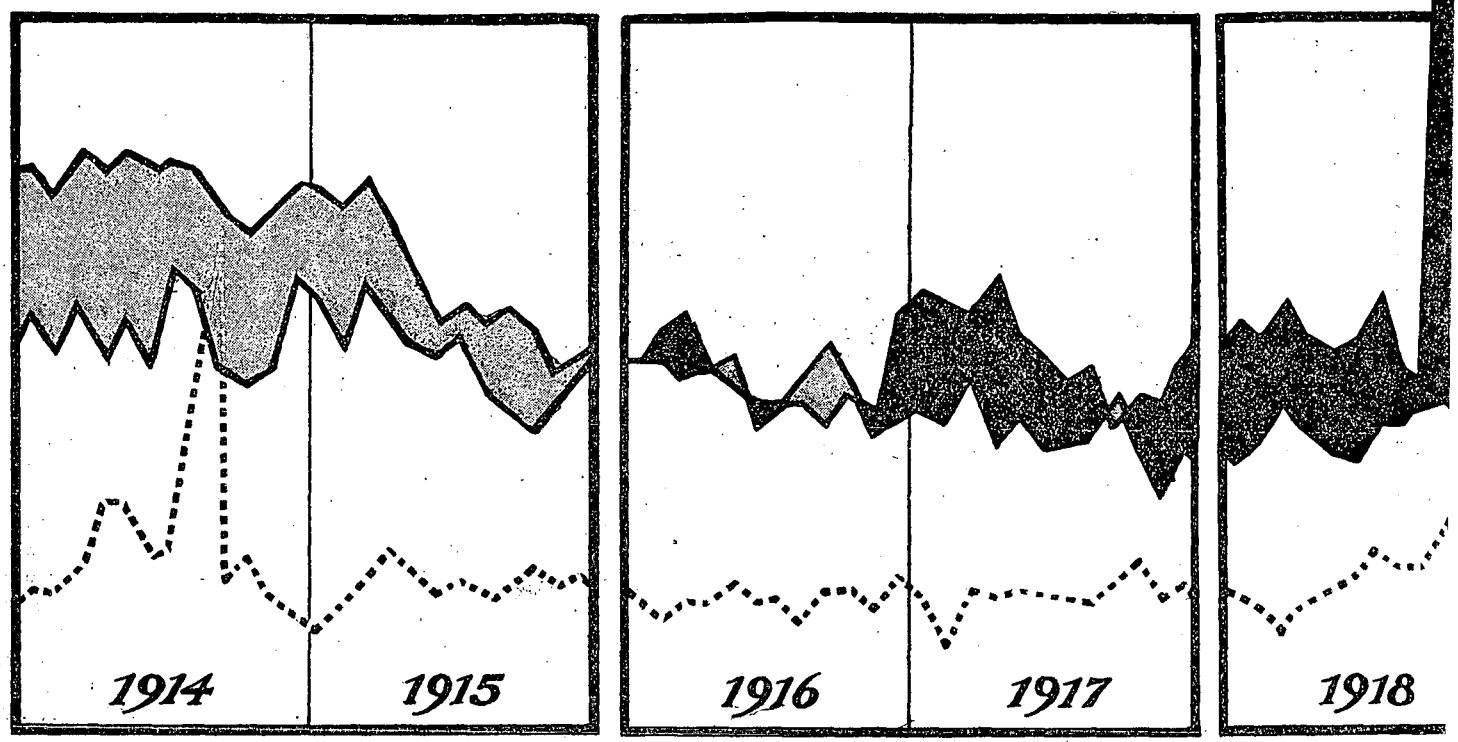
Life Tides in Germany



The first half of 1914 maps a picture substantially that of the twenty years before the war. In the late summer and early autumn, with war and mobilization, comes the peak of war marriages

With 1916, the birth-rate dropped below the death-rate for the first time, though with a sudden short rise there was a temporary favorable balance of population. 1917 is an almost completely black year

The last months of steadily in its hum year came the grea with demobilizatio

This graph, which Dr. Emerson brought from Ge The black line uppermost at the start marks the l area, the surplus of births over deaths—i. e., the i birth-rate, the loss of population shows as solid bl no reason for considering th

IT was the children's Christmas matinee, Hansel and Gretel, at the Opera in Berlin, and when the curtain had rung down fifteen hundred children were to get their Christmas treat from the German Red Cross—no toys or candy, but a serious three-pound package of cocoa, rice, and fat, accepted with a sober sense of its precious value. The children came marching four abreast, past the high imperial box of the Kaisers. There no ghost remained of the uniformed splendor and jeweled elegance of former years. Frau Ebert, wife of President Ebert, leaned over to pass out the packages to the upraised little hands. I stood beyond, with the medical director of the Reichsgesundheitsamt, Herr Doktor Rost.

As the children came past us with their packages, he said: "I will show you what manner of children are getting American food," and he asked each row in turn "Quäker-speisung?" (Are you getting the Quaker food?) When a little hand would shoot up, he mentioned to that child to fall aside, out of line. Then to each of these children who are getting one meal a day from Quaker supplies, he put another question.

"Lebt dein Vater?" (Is your father living?)

The answers came quickly, and there were only four:

"Gefallen." (Fallen on the field of battle.)

"Gestorben." (Dead of disease or accident.)

"Arbeitslos." (Out of work.)

"Im Krankenhaus." (In the hospital.)

On the social side, disability of the wage earner stood back of every case.

Then we examined the children. Pallor, anemia, poor muscle tone, sunken eyes, listlessness, the enlarged glands of the neck associated with poor nutrition or tuberculous infection—one could almost write a routine description to fit every child. Their outer clothing was neat and mended, though many of the girls wore calico dresses in the freezing weather of an unprecedentedly cold December. They were tricked out in their brightest and bravest for the holiday festival. But, underneath, ragged underclothing, or sometimes none at all, told the story of the losing battle for cleanliness and decency, as the bent bones and flabby tissues marked the history of months and years of little and unsuitable food. When I went back to the little Lutheran pension at which I was staying the servants had just received their gifts—for each a loaf of bread, a cake of soap, a roll of cotton cloth.

I TOLD the visiting nurses, "I do not want to see the poorest and the most miserable, but the common run of those whom you are meeting, and especially the kinds of people who are just losing their ability to care for themselves unaided, and are forced to take the help of others."

They took me to call on three old ladies who shared the little flat in which one of them, sixty-seven years old, had

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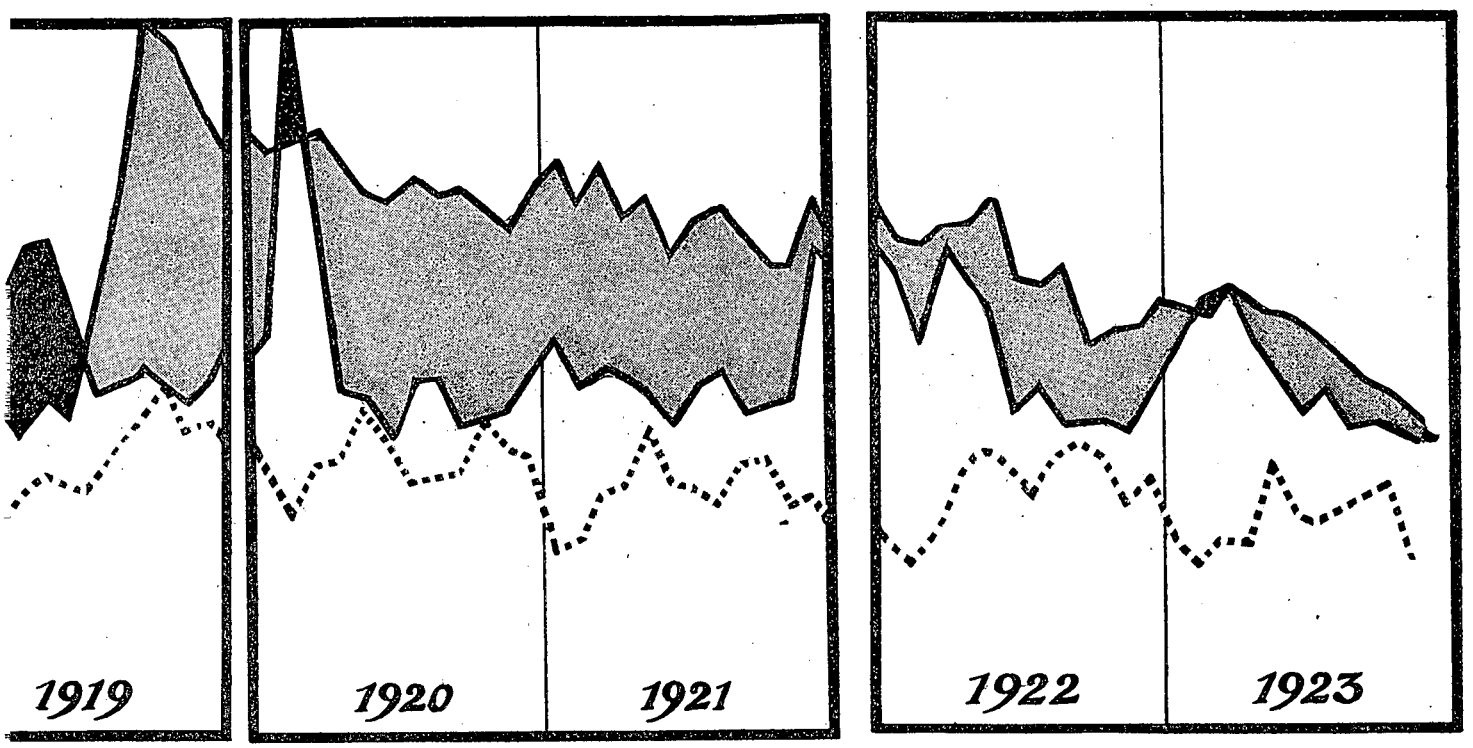
By Haven Emerson, M.D.



owed a nation failing . At the end of the epidemic. In 1919, rate swings up again

Despite the continuing high birth-rate, a second influenza epidemic brought a second peak of excess mortality. With 1921 the picture is back almost at normal, showing a substantial surplus of births

But with 1922-1923 all the lines plunge downward again. Dr. Emerson explained in The Survey for February 1 (Hungry and Sick) this apparent paradox of a falling death-rate amid a suffering people

s based on the vital statistics of the city of Breslau. ; the black line below it, the death-rate; the shaded n the population. When the death-rate exceeds the · dotted line indicates marriages. There seems to be than typical of German cities

been born. The war has wiped out the break-wall which stood between their old age and want. One of them gave piano lessons to a few friends who still had more than she. The other two were trying to capitalize the pastime of former years, embroidering. Bit by bit, they were selling the furniture and little personal belongings which had been so intimate a part of their picture of life. But the habits and manners of sixty years remained. Talking with them one almost forgot the bleakness in which they could do so little but wait.

WE were going about after dark, though with the early December twilight, the nurses usually have to stop work at half-past four. One can stumble up the stairs and hallways in the dark, but when there are few lights inside, even in the kitchens where the whole family makes the most of what little heat comes once a day from the stove, there is little to be done. But here the upper half of the door swung open and beyond it lay a picture that Rembrandt should have painted.

At the side of a great square bed there flickered the tiniest of kerosene flames, lighting the faces of the four who were playing cards, a young couple and a boy and a girl from neighboring flats. The room, in so far as the light flowed out from the center revealing it, was beautifully clean and tidy. But once one had cleaned the room, what more was there to do? With no warm clothing to withstand the bitter cold outside—no work, no heat within the room—these four young people, all of them healthy and good to look at, had spent the whole day in that bed, playing cards.

WHEN you look down the school registers that give reasons for absence, you see surprisingly few cases of scarlet fever or measles or chicken-pox or the other things that bulk so large in our records. Instead, you find that a rainy day has kept indoors at home the children who had nothing but felt slippers. A cold day has kept away those who had no overcoat. Or a child who came to school in the morning fainted at his desk from lack of food. One in five of the six-year-olds who should have entered school this fall was not strong enough to try it at all.

When a teacher finds that a child has regularly only one meal a day—and that scanty and without the food for growth and vigor, she consults the neighbors, asking here and there to find a family which can take the child for a meal a week. Even when you have very little you can squeeze out something for one child once a week, so that the generous sharing of seven families may keep him in school. And yet, at Coblenz I saw a family of four children who had not been out of the house since October. What permanent effect on the emotional life of the child will result from sharing his only real meal of the day with seven families in turn, or from never passing his own threshold?

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INDUSTRY

Putting It Up to Missoula

AMONG the Egyptian papyri is one which gives the number of measures of barley necessary to support a slave in strength to work. It treated the slave as merely an industrial asset, and may be called the cost of living budget in ancient Egypt. In the first half of the last century one of the large charitable associations in New York City estimated the amount of Indian meal it would take to feed the family of a workingman for a year, provided, of course, that he were willing to subsist exclusively upon that interesting form of nourishment. This, together with the clothes which would keep him warm and a roof to shelter him, was the minimum cost of living for a workingman's family.

In 1909, Dr. Chapin made a study of the cost of living for workingmen's families in New York City from a different standpoint. He took into consideration some of the things that it is for the advantage of workingmen to have, not as industrial workers but as human beings, and in conclusion he says that families having between $900 and $1,000 a year were able in general to maintain themselves in health and obey the most urgent demands of decency.

In 1912 we gathered statistics covering families of varying incomes over the United States and came to the conclusion that an average family needed a minimum of $1,200 a year to support itself on a scale which would make it an advantageous factor in the community. The various studies made since then show a progressively rising cost of living, partly due to the advancing price of commodities, but also influenced by our advancing ideas as to what are the necessities in comfort and decency; health and education; pleasure and rest.

Recently the Chamber of Commerce of Missoula, Montana, as a basis for increasing the number of industries in the town, desired to find out how much it would cost to maintain the type of workmen which must come if the new industries were to be satisfactorily operated. The study made for them by C. Walker Hayes of the department of economics of the University of Montana has just been made public.

Mr. Hayes has not based his study on how much it will take to keep that valuable industrial asset—the workingman—alive, but on the cost of making him that more important thing—a good citizen—and so far as it applies to Missoula he has used material gathered by state and Federal bodies and by other economists. Throughout the report he stresses the importance of the kind of people who are to furnish the labor for the new industries. This, he insists, is determined by their standard of living and is limited by their wages, therefore the character of the labor population is largely determined by the wages which they get. So he begins not by determining how much it will take to support the family of an unskilled laborer, but by determining the standard of living which is desirable and then working back to how much that standard will cost to maintain. He quotes Dr. Gordon S. Watkins as saying that

> there obtains no such thing as a standard of living in an absolute sense . . . it is essentially a progressive thing, assuming a cumulative character as the individual or group acquires additional tastes and desires. This cumulative and varied aspect of human desires . . . plays a significant part in labor problems as the human race in every part of the world advances in civilization. . . . Dissatisfaction with old wage or salary levels develops, and industrial and social unrest is the inevitable outcome. Economic necessity is the mother of both invention and social unrest.

This budget for the family of an unskilled wage earner in Missoula is based neither on the pauper-poverty standard which is just above the dependency level, nor on the minimum of subsistence level, which represents essentially a mere animal existence, but on the minimum of health and comfort standard, which provides not only for the material necessities of food, shelter, and clothing, but also for certain desirable comforts of life. Among these added comforts are clothing in amounts not merely sufficient to guarantee physical comfort but to maintain satisfaction of the instinct of self-respect and decency; insurances against the more serious misfortunes such as death, disability, and fire; good education for the children of the family, a certain amount of amusement, and some expenditures for self-development.

The budget is based on the requirements of a family consisting of father, mother, a boy of twelve, a girl of six, and a boy of two. Mr. Hayes took the major needs of food, clothing and shelter, and determined how much of these three human necessities would be required by the kind of family which Missoula wanted within its borders. After determining the quantity and the quality, he worked back to the money cost.

Food and Clothing

The cost budget for food—$607.72—he made up from prices at the representative stores for supplies of standard quality and in quantity, as he says, "with regard to economy and thrift as normal traits in the family life of the laborer." The quantities are based on a study of the actual food consumption of 280 families, made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and included the actual quantity of each article of food purchased for a year in each family schedule. The theory is, of course, that a workingman's family in Missoula needs just about the same amount of food as a workingman's family anywhere else. This budget, considered from the standpoint of health, contained proteins, fats and carbohydrates in sufficient quantities and in the right proportions. Even to satisfy trained dietitians it was necessary to reduce only slightly the quantity of meat and to increase slightly the quantity of whole milk, fresh vegetables and acid foods.

As a basis for the clothing budget, Mr. Hayes used the work of Newel Howland Comish, author of The Standard

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of Living, 1923, and he has modified the quantity budget slightly to suit the conditions and tastes of Missoula. For the basis of this clothing budget he states:

> The level of health and decency in clothing has been interpreted as a level which not only takes into account the physical needs of warmth, cleanliness, and comfort, but also has such regard for appearance and style as will permit the family members to appear in public, and within their necessarily rather narrow social circles with neatness and self-respect. In other words, the clothing standards of the family should provide a fair degree of that mental satisfaction which follows being reasonably well dressed.

This clothing budget is based on articles actually worn by real workers and their families, using as data the expenditures of approximately 850 families having three children under 15 years of age. But the quality of the material and the yearly replacement have been determined by a special study estimating the actual number of articles which it is necessary to replace in a year, not the number of garments that a family may possess at one time. Mr. Hayes takes it for granted that a considerable amount of sewing will be done by the mother at home, so that in reality the clothing cost of $314.85 for five people should be stretched to include the value of her labor in making a considerable amount of it.

Housing, Light, Water and Fuel

The standard for housing, based upon health requirements, considers primarily air space, ventilation, lighting, sanitation, privacy and proper separation of the sexes; and a standard of one room per person exclusive of bath has been adopted as the minimum requirement consistent with health and decency. (Compare Mr. Stein's report of housing possibilities in New York, p. 509.) For the average family of five persons, a living room, dining room, kitchen and two bedrooms should be provided as the minimum. Three sleeping rooms are needed in order to secure reasonable privacy—one bedroom for the parents and two for the children, one for each sex. To meet this need the living room can be arranged so as to be adaptable for sleeping purposes.

Houses which meet the requirements of this standard can be rented in Missoula for from $22.50 to $27.50. But should there be an influx of working families there would not be a supply of such houses to meet the demand. The inevitable result until new homes could be built would be an increase in rent. There is relatively small excuse for overcrowding a city with the advantages of area which is characteristic of Missoula. If one or more new industries should become established in Missoula the need for homes would most satisfactorily be met by the building of homes in large numbers near the industrial plants. Real estate men and building contractors have estimated that houses of the required type could be constructed at present prices for from $2,500 to $3,000. If the mean price of $3,000 were taken as a base, such a house would rent for $30.

"While some families live under a lower housing standard than their income would necessarily require," says Mr. Hayes, "the chief factor in low housing standards for individual families is inadequate income."

These three expenditures, food, clothing and housing, make up more than two-thirds of the necessary cost of living to maintain a reasonable standard. But they are not in a modern state of society any more important than the expenditures for light, water and fuel for which are allowed in Missoula $169.65. The allowance for light was determined on the basis of accounts for electricity supplied by the Missoula Light and Water Company to the families of unskilled laborers occupying five-room dwellings in various parts of the town. These accounts varied from $13.76 to $28.88 a year, the average being $1.72 a month. One dollar and seventy-two cents a month does not buy much electricity—certainly not enough to cook with, or heat water with, or to run many labor-saving devices which it would be greatly to the advantage of the unskilled laborer's wife to have; and in Montana, with 4,000,000 undeveloped horse power available from streams and rivers, it is quite possible to furnish electricity for these purposes at less than the price of coal.

It would seem to the advantage of the family that the allowance made in the budget for fuel, which is based on the accounts of several families of wage earners using coal and wood and depending upon coal for cooking, should be adjusted so that the allowance for fuel for cooking be made part of the electricity charge. The allowance for water provides for the heating of a five-room house with toilet and provides $3 for irrigation. Obviously the workingman's family in Missoula is expected to have the advantage of a garden or at least a lawn.

Furniture, Home-Furnishings, Sundries

Seventy-three dollars and twenty cents are allowed for furniture and house furnishings. This bears, of course, a less significant relation to the health of the family than food, clothing and housing, and it may vary from the standard with less disastrous results. For these reasons Mr. Hayes bases his conclusion as to the quantity and expenditure for furniture and house furnishings on the actual expenditures of 12,096 families living in 92 localities, gathered by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. His comment upon this standard is that

> This total expenditure under this head does not, it must be noted, permit of a degree of comfort which a workingman's family might crave. It certainly does not approach what the word comfort or fullness of life might suggest. The highest per cent of the total number of families purchasing any one of the commodities included in this list was 92.7 per cent for brooms and brushes.

The allowance made for sundries, $55.97, is also derived by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from its study of over

ITEMS OF EXPENDITURE		AMOUNT	TOTALS	%
LIVING EXPENSES	Food	$607.72		
	Clothing	314.85		
	Rent	360.00		
	Light, Water and Fuel	169.65	$1581.42	87.9%
	Furniture and House Furnishings	73.23		
	Sundries	55.97		
ACCUMULATION	Endowment	50.00		
	Life	10.00	75.00	4.2%
	Children's ins.	15.00		
WELFARE	Health	70.00		
	Religion and Benevolences	35.00	141.72	7.9%
	Amusements and Recreation	18.90		
	Education	17.82		
	Total	$1798.14		

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12,000 families. Since these statistics were gathered before the Volstead law went into operation the $55.97 a year includes family expenditures for alcohol, and seems a sufficient answer to the common charge that the workingman spends his wages in drink, because this item also includes laundry sent out, telephones, automobile, motorcycle or bicycle rides.

Accumulation and Welfare

It is a great advance since the cost of living of Egyptian workingmen was measured by barley to the point marked by Mr. Hayes' budget, where $75 a year is allowed for what he calls "accumulation." Under this head is the payment on a $500 straight life insurance policy to provide for decent burial. It is one of the pathetic facts of our social order that most unskilled laborers today earn a wage that is insufficient to provide even so meager an accumulation of earnings as would be represented by a two-thousand-dollar endowment insurance policy. Even such a sum would serve in the case of certain contingencies as a self-respect fund, reducing the chances that the worthy workingman would end his days as a pauper, so $50 is allowed for this in the budget.

The budget for accumulation also includes a small educational fund for each child. During the early years of childhood there should be accumulation over against the heavier demands made upon the father's resources by youth of high school age.

It is also a very great advance not only over Ancient Egypt but over nineteenth-century America to allow $71.72 for what is called "welfare." This represents to some degree the aspirations of different members of the family although it makes some allowance for social responsibilities. The $35 for benevolences may be taken to include church obligations and fraternal dues. Also in these days of democratic support of philanthropic enterprises the laboring man is expected to make his contribution. The allowance for education and uplift of $17.82 is the average expenditure per family found by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. It includes newspapers, magazines, books, school expenses and music. Again, in the case of amusements and recreation, we have estimated from the same study of 12,096 families the average expenditure per family, amounting to $18.90.

For health Mr. Hayes allows $70, and his interpretation of this expenditure is perhaps the most significant and socially condemnatory of all the statements in his budget.

> If expenditures for the preservation of a health already achieved were all that there was to consider, but little additional would need to be made under the division of health; for the adequate provision for diet, housing, clothing, and recreation would insure health. But the facts with which we deal are these. The families of wage earners like all families reap what they have sown. With the majority, years of life have passed during which food, recreational and other essential habits of personal hygiene have been neglected. It becomes necessary then to allow in a family budget for sickness bills and dental bills which are the direct result of previous neglect. . . . We have to consider the cost of confinement at child-birth and the emergencies due to unavoidable illness. We have taken pains to avoid arbitrariness at this point by again making use of the work of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. In the bureau's study of 12,000 workingmen's families it was found the average expenditure among all of these families was $60.39 per family. Under sickness the following items were included: physician, surgeon, oculist, medicine, nurse, hospital, dentist, eyeglasses, other sickness. The average expenditure for dentistry was but $1.69. This clearly is an unsufficient allowance. This amount would not even cover annual dental inspection for each member of the family, so necessary as an insurance against large expenditures for dental work. In arriving then at the figure of $70 for health, we have increased the allowance over the actual 13.7 per cent.
>
> As a cause of suffering among families of low income sickness is so significant that larger allowance needs to be made for it in workingmen's family budgets. On the other hand, with the ample allowance for food and clothes and shelter which this budget provides less sickness would be the result to be expected upon the adoption of such a budget by families hitherto living upon a lower standard.

What About It?

Mr. Hayes' conclusion is that if a new industrial development were to bring to Missoula one thousand new families and prices were to remain the same as they have been during the year just closing, the cost of maintaining the family of an unskilled wage earner according to a minimum standard of health, decency and comfort would be $1,798.14.

And then he concludes significantly:

> $4.50 is the going wage for regular unskilled labor while the wage scale for common day labor is $5.00 in Missoula today. The laborer who is so fortunate as to have steady employment throughout the year earns $1,408.50. Probably quite rare is the demand in Missoula for the highest grade of unskilled labor which commands $6.00 per day netting annually with steady employment $1,872.

So that it would seem that the Missoula Chamber of Commerce had the choice put definitely before them: to raise the wages of new workmen to make possible a minimum standard of living: to be content with workmen of a lower grade than it is for their advantage to have—or to leave Missoula without new industries!

Labor and the Taylor Society

One of the most hopeful signs of the times is the growth of understanding between the scientific managers and organized labor. Only a few years ago, scientific management and trade unionism were commonly supposed to be fundamentally and permanently antithetical. Gradually, however, the very application of the scientific method to the analysis of industrial problems has led the managers to an appreciation of the essential function of trade unions in industrial government. Trade unionists, on the other hand, are rapidly coming to realize that the healthy growth of democracy in industry depends upon their capacity to assume responsibility for the development of productive efficiency. The following comment by the editors of the Bulletin of the Taylor Society, an organization to promote the art and science of management, upon the declarations of the American Federation of Labor at its last annual convention is of such far-reaching significance that it ought to get into the headlines of every newspaper in the country.

COMPARISON of the resolutions and declarations of manufacturers', bankers', labor and other organized industrial associations, raises the interesting and important question whether labor is not at present showing more genuine statesmanship—in so far as is manifest by declarations of policy—than is any of the other groups.

There is occasion for grave concern that the declarations of organized bodies representative of finance, ownership and

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management are as a rule limited to generalizations such as "less government in business and more business in government," without supporting studies showing why more government in business has come about and how less government in business is to be achieved. There seems to be an absence of historical sense of the reasons for the present situation and of constructive imagination with respect to the way out. There is apparently little concern on the part of ownership and management that the way business has been managed—with respect to controlling motives and practice—is probably the cause of the situation which business feels to be so unsatisfactory, and that the remedy undoubtedly lies in the way business is going to be conducted—again with respect to controlling motives and practice. Experiencing the ill effects of an unfavorable regimen, ownership and management disregard the proved methods of diagnosis, prognosis and prescription and cry out for a Coué to lead them to health through a formula.

ON the other hand, certain recent declarations of organized labor [American Federationist, November, 1923] give evidence of a thinking about the reasons for the present situation and a way out. Among many declarations and resolutions adopted at the October convention of the A. F. of L., was one entitled Industry's Manifest Duty. One may not agree with all in that declaration, but one must recognize its substantiality, and acknowledge that it presents basic principles of a positive program of cooperation with ownership and management. Its constructive vision is evidenced by the fact that it recognizes that the ills of industry are a result of the habits of industry, and that the cure for those ills must come from a change of habits. The following excerpts are worthy of most serious consideration:

> Henceforth the movement for the organization of the workers into trade unions has a deeper meaning than the mere organization of groups for the advancement of group interest, however vital that function may yet remain.
>
> Henceforth it must mean the conscious organization of one of the most vital functional elements for enlightened participation in a democracy of industry. . . .
>
> Through the muddling conflict of groups who still find it impossible to come together in cooperation we must look to a future that must have its foundation upon cooperation and collaboration. . . . We advocate organization of all wage earners and of all useful and productive elements.
>
> The functional elements in our national life must fit themselves to work out their own problems, eradicate their abuses and furnish America with an ever increasing flood of commodities, both necessary and pleasure giving. Industry alone has the competence and must demonstrate that competence through organization. . . . Industry must organize to govern itself, to impose upon itself tasks and rules to bring order into its own house. . . . Industry must bring order to itself constructively or it will have an order thrust upon it . . . under the regime of bureaucracy that threatens unless industry solves its own problems. . . .
>
> Labor stands ready for participation in this tremendous development. It has long offered conference with all its implications as a substitute for conflict, regarding the folding of arms in idleness only as the last resort in failure of negotiations. . . .
>
> Industry must save itself. Industry must find itself. Industry must organize for service, for constructive effort, for orderly continuity, for justice to all who participate . . . to that end it must organize and come together in deliberative bodies where the full wisdom and experience of all may contribute to final decisions. . . . Fact must take the place of opinion and selfish interest. . . .

While the declarations and resolutions of the Portland convention present quite a radical departure from what has appeared to be A. F. of L. philosophy, they should be accepted at face value and organized labor congratulated on this manifestation of industrial statesmanship. Labor does not stop with the mere assertion that there is too much government interference in industry; it offers a program: There is too much government interference in industry; it is a result of the way industry is managed; it will increase if industry does not regulate itself better; let all organic elements in industry organize and through conferences of representatives take practical steps in this matter of self-regulation; it is a choice of more regulation politically from without or more regulation voluntarily within; and regulation within must be comprehensive and representative of all organic constituent elements.

There has been some experience along the lines of such a program of cooperation, and the results are such as to give weight to the A. F. of L. declaration of policy. There is probably no industry generally more chaotic than the ready-made garment industry; were its relations to the public as definite as are those of transportation and mining it would long ago have been subjected to severe regulation from without. The conditions are so chaotic as to have inspired in certain places a regulation from within through the cooperation of all organic elements. We refer to the agreements (between organized employers and trade unions) in the Cleveland, Rochester and Chicago markets, which involve machinery for the adjustment of disputes as they arise, insurance against unemployment which creates an incentive for such a quality of management as will secure continuity of employment, standards and productivity and wage standards.

We believe the policy presented in Industry's Manifest Duty is of great significance to those who believe in scientific management. Such a policy offers stability of operating conditions, and it is upon the foundation of stability that efficient management must be erected. Any policy which will promote stability will promote scientific management. And stability once established through cooperation of the organic elements of an industry, better management and more efficient operating will inevitably come through the same cooperation.

ORGANIZED labor has had much to say against scientific management, for it has feared abuse of its mechanisms, which Taylor acknowledged is possible. Organized cooperation would remove labor's fear of the abuse of the mechanisms, and would undoubtedly promote scientific management in accordance with its true spirit. Taylor had many controversies with organized labor, but he said as much for as against organized labor. In one of his last talks, before the Philadelphia Y. M. C. A., he referred to the difference between matters which could be settled by investigation, experiment and law, and matters which must be settled only by the consensus of group opinions. Cooperation should bring labor's assistance in settling those matters which can be settled by investigation, experiment and law, and management's in the establishment of a machinery for the settlement of those matters which can be settled only by wise judgments. While we have a right to expect that the field of determination of facts by scientific methods will grow broader, should we not also expect that, as we enter upon a greater industrialism, the field of adjustment by conference and rational judgments must also grow broader?

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EDUCATION

Revolution in Latin-American Universities

OCCASIONALLY in the last few years, brief items have appeared in the North American press calling attention to strikes, lockouts and even riots in several Latin-American universities. It has been difficult, if not impossible, for the casual reader to find out just what was going on. When he has gone more fully into the subject and learned something of the startling changes taking place in many of the oldest and strongest of these institutions, he can find no word more fit to describe the situation than "revolutionary."

Indeed, when the governments of these southern institutions are compared with those of the northern countries, or even with their own governments of only a few years past, the constitutions of Latin-American academic institutions appear not only revolutionary, but "Bolshevistic." Take the case of the University of Hanava. Here there was prolonged if not bitter contest between the old faculty government and the student body aided by the alumni. The settlement was finally committed to a joint faculty and student committee. The report of this body was approved by all and finally promulgated as law by the executive of the nation.

This new law provides for a university assembly of ninety persons which may perform any act delegated to it by the state, may propose changes in the rules and regulations of the several colleges and schools, and may make changes in the curriculum, provided they do not encroach upon the privileges of the faculties. It is also entrusted with the important duty of electing the rector or head of the university. This body may be said to be the lower house, the popular branch of the academic legislature. Potentially, if not actually, it is the law-making body and it has the last word concerning general policies which may be proposed by other governmental agencies of the university.

All this does not look very revolutionary to the North American. This assembly appears as an enlarged board of trustees or regents. When, however, it is learned that there is no legal or governing body, constituted like our boards of trustees, and that one-third of this assembly is elected by the faculties, one-third by the alumni and one-third by the resident students, it becomes apparent at once that we have here a situation without parallel in the United States or British America.

The changes in the constitution of this Cuban university are, perhaps, more radical than in any other. In Argentine, where there was a struggle in all of the leading national institutions which finally led to the promulgation of a new law, the alumni and students succeeded in securing, jointly, only one-half of the one hundred representatives in the legislative body. Nor do they have, as in Havana, the right to elect the head of the university. This privilege is still exercised by the faculties. However, like unenfranchised women, the students are not inactive when campaigns for the election of a president are under way. They make their wishes known and by the usual political methods exercise a strong influence on the electoral body.

Speaking of higher education in Argentina for the year 1919, Walter A. Montgomery, specialist in foreign educational systems, bureau of education, Washington, D. C., says:

> The unrest among the student bodies in the institutions of higher education has constituted perhaps the most remarkable feature of the educational history of the past year. In Buenos Aires reform was demanded in the statutes under which the university was governed, and the adoption of methods in conformity with new tendencies in university instruction. The students demanded especially the right to vote for the election of the authorities. Satisfactory agreement was reached, and the university, after several days of suspension of classes and demonstrations on the part of the student body, resumed instruction which was uninterrupted for the rest of the year.

"At the University of Cordoba," says the same authority, "the conflict between the students and the authorities assumed more serious proportions."

> Regular work was supended, the efforts of the mediator appointed by the National Government to hear the claims of the student body and to decide upon the just and practical course for the university authorities to adopt were unsatisfactory to the complainants, and the authority of the minister of instruction was invoked. . . . In the other three universities, those of LaPlata, Tucuman, and Santa Fe, the disturbances which impeded the prosecution of the regular routine of studies were comparatively insignificant, though the spirit of unrest was marked and many of the reforms and changes secured in the two leading universities were readily accepted.

In one of these Argentine universities, Cordoba, the students have secured the right to pass upon the merits of a professor before he is elected by the faculty of the school. Students interested in the proposed instructor assemble to hear him and after a few lectures decide upon his fitness for the position. Upon their decision rests the fate of the candidate. The students do not, of course, have a formal right in the matter, but it would be a hazardous step for a faculty to act independently.

In other countries, the contest is still on. Without the forms of law, or without the formal granting of new constitutions, the well organized student and alumni bodies are exercising an influence upon the policy and administration of their academic communities, perhaps not less than that of their fellows in Cuba and Argentine. This is notably true in the oldest of the American universities, that of San Marco, Lima, Peru. Here, as an illustration of their methods may be cited an open letter published in a local newspaper by the student federation and addressed to the rector of the university. In this letter the students demanded the reinstatement of a certain professor of physics who had been removed from his position by the university government.

Such a demand on the part of the students would probably be granted now as a matter of course, unless the

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faculty wished to try to return to the practice of former days when, like their colleagues of the North, they decided such matters for themselves.

The situation in Colombia seems somewhat unusual. Here the universities have no academic head. Over the rectors of the several colleges is the minister of instruction, or in provincial institutions, a corresponding officer. Incidentally, this means not only state control but subjection to the church as well. The students have for some time carried on an agitation for an autonomous university. Quite recently most of the students of the entire country, about 12,000, assembled at Bogata and petitioned the authorities for the right to elect for themselves a new officer, namely a president or chancellor who would succeed to the powers now exercised by the state official.

The Latin-American institutions of higher learning are, as already indicated, subject to the laws of the state and to formal supervision by the executive department of the government. But there is no intermediary between the educational institution and the state. There are no trustees or regents to assume responsibility. The resident officers of the university are, or have until recently been, in their corporate capacity, responsible directly to the public authorities. They have chosen their own officers, made and administered their own budgets and laws. The chief official has held his office for a brief period and has been responsible to his academic colleagues, even though he may have been formally appointed by the government.

The internal organization of the southern universities is not different in form from those of the United States. But deans and department executives, as well as the president, are usually subject to the will of their faculty colleagues from whom they receive their nomination if not their formal commission. In the United States, deans and department heads are rarely selected by their colleagues and the presidents are always elected by and responsible to the non-academic government.

The general theory and practice of university government in Latin-America is discussed in a report made in 1905, by the secretary for education in Argentine, Dr. Joaquin V. Gonzales. This report is of special value not only because it sets out clearly the aims and organization of the proposed university but because there is an incidental discussion of constitutional theories. Dr. Gonzales was quite conscious of the evils which had grown up in the faculty governed universities of the Argentine Republic and of Latin-America. They tended, he thought, to become bureaucratic and non-progressive, and to absorb most of the revenues with administrative machinery. But he could see no advantage in committing its government to "outsiders, either to itself, or to its life and working."

In a new university, Dr. Gonzales says, "the Executive Power has to construct the machine that must afterwards work by itself." It may also intervene in a crisis, but this method is "exceptional and not general, something like appealing to a dictatorship in serious circumstances." The control by the faculties of their own appointments and tenure entails "evident dangers and real defects, proved in many circumstances," but it represents the happy medium between popular election and executive appointments. "Academical corporations easily tend towards the inertness of the official, and to the forming of such a spirit of solidarity to such degree as not to be able to conceive anything good outside themselves." But such conditions, says our authority, produce one of the crises which may be met by their own reserve power or by that of the general government.

This writer thought the students were not then in a "fit condition to judge the professors" they did not know. Present day students may be equally unfit to "judge the professor," but the southern communities have shown no tendency to entrust the judgment of the professors to non-resident and lay bodies, specially constituted for this purpose. To the students, resident and graduate, this duty is being committed. With what result it is too early to say. But it is an experiment of first-rate interest and of some promise. It should be remembered also that this practice is not without precedent and that the early universities of southern Europe were often conducted as student guilds.

In still another respect the university organization of the southern continent differs greatly from those of the northern. The student societies are of a very different character, being very largely non-social, and interested strictly in advancing the intellectual and professional welfare of their members. The students come almost exclusively from the wealthy and educated classes, and they are much more mature than the masses of undergraduates in northern schools. There is little "university spirit" and the small professional school is the unit, as in the case of the Oxford or Cambridge colleges.

Not only are the student societies serious and professional in their aims but they are closely organized and thoroughly federated. In the university there is a general federation or union and in a country all the university unions are joined, while considerable success has attended the efforts to form an international union. With this type of student organization, thoroughly organized and having a considerable experience back of them, it would not be difficult to have foreseen that new demands would be made at the first favorable opportunity. The fact that authority centered in the faculty rather than in a non-resident political body also made it more practical for the student organizations to demand a larger share in the government of the university.

Some of the North American professors who were not only witnesses of the demonstration and occasional riots which introduced these changes, and others who suffered something of loss in the early reforms and elections which occurred after the new statutes were in force, have described these movements as Bolshevistic. To the disinterested observer, at a safe distance, the personal accounts of their experiences, and the fears and hopes expressed by these participants, seem all natural enough. But they do not convey the impression that any serious damage has been yet occasioned by these very remarkable changes in the constitutions of the Latin-American universities. The students have struck at real abuses and have used their power for the most part to advance the higher interests of the institutions.

J. E. KIRKPATRICK

The Students Volunteer

"PHILOSOPHY," said Cicero, "began with contemplation of the stars; but Socrates brought it down from heaven to dwell amongst men." It's not an uncommon story. Human effort usually begins a long way from home, getting back by long and devious paths to its ultimate objective—the understanding and control of life. The Student Volunteer Movement was organized, nearly thirty years ago, as

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an expression of an intense interest in the ends of the earth and the isles of the seas. But at its latest convention, held in Indianapolis, December 29 to January 3, the evidence was overwhelming that it had got back from its long quest and was ready to take an active part in the work of the world in which its members live.

That does not mean that the former missionary appeal was lacking from the program. It was still there; in a sense it was almost plaintively there. Many, perhaps most, of the addresses dwelt on the old missionary themes. But the student delegates were not profoundly interested. There must have been many who were still thinking in terms of thirty years ago. But most had come down into the preesnt for their problems and interests.

For example, twenty-five years ago leaders and students in the movement were, alike, thinking of the responsibility of the "Christian" nations for the salvation of the "backward races"; and the convention days were devoted to stirring up enthusiasm for the "Evangelization of the world in this generation." Perhaps something of this old sense of responsibility remains; but for most the problem of the relationship of the races has taken a new turn. Two topics captured the interest of the delegates beyond question—topics that would scarcely been dreamed of in a convention of twenty years ago. These two topics were: race relationships and war. If these seven thousand students were, in any sense, what one newspaper called them, "a cross-section of the American student body," then the American college has become a center of profound discussion of such important matters as international community, the relationships of the races of the world and the best means of preventing war. Moreover, if this convention truly represented present trends in the thinking of Christian leaders, then, for the future, we shall not be so much interested in "converting" our heathen neighbors as in learning how to be decent to them.

The spirit of the convention can best be illustrated, perhaps, by the story of the way in which the subject of war was handled. Passing by the "rump" meeting of 400 delegates which, according to one newspaper, "disgraced Indianapolis" by passing a resolution outlawing all participation in war, of whatever sort, "after November 11, 1924," the official action of the convention, itself, was novel and exhilarating. At the open meeting of the whole delegate body for discussion of the future status of war, four programs were proposed, each supported by a speaker. These four programs were: First, "preparedness," supported by H. McAllister Griffiths, of the University of California; second, "education," supported by Theodore Sargent, of Boston University; third, "internationalism," supported by Wendell Berge, of the University of Nebraska; and "pacifism," supported by Allan A. Hunter, of Union Theological Seminary. Each supporting group of delegates had prepared a platform upon which its representative stood. The four platforms, in the order stated, were as follows:

For "preparedness":

> We believe that preparedness for the emergency of war is the best way to avoid war. Therefore, we urge our nation so to prepare that any future war shall be brought to a speedy righteous determination.

For "education":

> We believe that war is un-Christian and should be abolished through a process of education, but that non-resistance is now impractical, and that occasions may arise wherein it is our duty to engage in war, after all means of prevention have failed.

For "internationalism":

> We believe that war is un-Christian, and that the League of Nations is the best means of preventing it, but we should resort to war in case an unavoidable dispute had been referred to the league or world court without successful settlement.

For "pacifism":

> We believe that henceforth war is an utter denial of Jesus's way of life, ineffective as a means of settling differences between nations; therefore we declare our resolve not to sanction or participate directly or indirectly in any future war.

According to the press accounts, the third platform, "internationalism" by way of membership in the League of Nations and the World Court, "received the greatest ovation," and presumably won the support of the largest number of delegates.

Although the executive committee of the movement announced that no change would be made in the statement of purpose (which therefore still remains "To awaken and sustain an active interest in foreign missions") yet the delegates themselves, as has been pointed out, showed the largest interest in racial relationships, their second main interest being the status of war. A third problem much discussed raised the question of the right of western civilizations to impose their ideas and practices upon eastern nations—which might seem to be a direct challenge of the whole missionary enterprise.

The general tone of the conference was critical, and at times almost radical. The most popular speakers were those who tried to get "to the root of the matter." Sherwood Eddy, for years a missionary in foreign lands, and now "regarded as the outstanding student leader of the world," said, on the subject of World Unrest, that revolt and unrest were not confined to Russia and the countries of Europe and Asia. There was enough in America, also, to justify unrest:

> A Christian leader recently refused to permit any discussion of social problems, saying, "America is all right, at least 98 per cent all right." Is this true? One hundred families now own or control most of the railways and a large proportion of the fourteen basic industries of the country. Turn now from this vast concentration of wealth in the hands of a few, to the poverty of the many at the other end of the scale. More than 700,000 are injured in industry in America every year, much of which is preventable. Some 2,000,000 are unemployed from four to six months of each year. Ten millions, or one-fourth of our population, are in poverty in normal times. Ten millions, who are now living, will die prematurely of preventable diseases at the present death-rate, and the death-rate of the poor is three times as great as that of the well-to-do. It is estimated that there are 1,750,000 children at work who ought to be in school. One-third of the mothers of labor are forced to toil to help support the family.

He warned his hearers against the complacency that in the face of facts like these could patter that "America is all right." He pointed out four directions in which America must undergo reconstruction. We suffer, he said, from

> unjust distribution of wealth and income; unemployment and denial of an opportunity to earn a living; denial of justice in the creation, adjudication and in the administration of law; denial of the right and opportunity to form effective organizations.

Time alone will tell whether this convention really represented either the students of our colleges, or the Christian

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and missionary intentions of America. For a few moments, at least, readers of the press accounts felt the release of new forces, or the renaissance of old forces, with the promise of the emergence of a youth movement that would rescue America from its sordid materialisms, its fears of the future and its aloofness from the problems of the world. More than one reader probably felt the same surge of hope that was expressed by a somewhat cynical New Yorker, who for a moment lost his cynicism, and "renewed his youth like the eagle":

"Would it not be wonderful," he said; "would it not be wonderful if the youth of America would actually accept these problems as their own, and in the spirit of primitive Christianity, put good will, high courage and their most disciplined intelligence into the task of making over our international and racial relationships, outlawing war and humanizing our industrial system? Would it not be wonderful!"

It would be about as wonderful as the primitive beginnings of Christianity. But that's what the convention talked about and prayed for! J. K. H.

Pioneering in England

IN 1889, Cecil Reddie, Edward Carpenter and J. H. Badley were the leading spirits in establishing a school called Abbotsholme, to provide "an all-round education of an entirely modern and rational character, based upon the principles of educational science, and adapted to the needs of the English cultured classes, which should direct the national life." Its roots lay in the English public school but its growth was profoundly influenced by German educational thinking, with something of the tendency toward practical arts which was so strongly forwarded by William Morris and his group.

Those who knew the democratic interests of "Jack" Badley and had watched him as one of the most promising writers of verse and as painter in water colors during his brilliant career at Rugby and at Cambridge looked for a larger opening for him than this school for "the governing class" seemed to offer. In his public school days he had been head boy in the house of the father of Rupert Brooke and in the university he was the center of a notable group which included G. Lowes Dickinson, Roger Fry, who became Pierpont Morgan's specialist in Italian art, the man who was the successor to William Morris in the conduct of the latter's workshops, and others of the same quality and grade. In 1893 came the beginning of a still newer type of the new school—Bedales, located at first in Sussex and in 1900 removed to Petersfield in sight of the Hampshire Downs. It early became well advertised because of its matter of fact way of becoming coeducational. Foreign students found in it a genuinely English atmosphere without the limitations of fagging and other non-social phases of the older schools.

It was here that M. Edmond Desmolins placed his son and from this school drew largely for the writing of his book—*A Quoi Tient la Supériorité des Anglo-Saxons,* which with his own new school, *L'Ecole des Roches,* played so great a part in the reorganization of the French secondary schools. The German movement led by Dr. Herman Lietz and eventuating in *Die Deutsche Landerziehungsheime* came like Bedales from the Abbotsholme impetus. It is interesting to note that the "Youth" development in Germany of the present day shows on all sides the influence of Dr. Lietz, though the present writer has found thus far no recognition of this fact.

For twenty-five years Americans have visited Bedales with increasing satisfaction. Our latest contribution in the way of an educational scheme, the "Dalton plan," has seen what appears to many its best demonstration in this English school.

Dr. Montessori contributed much to the remarkable successful work of the junior school which makes provision for children from the age of two up. The accounts of the present ideals and practices in the school show a very sane assimilation of the best to be found in the psychoanalytic movement. In many ways the headmaster gives

LIVING SUCCESSFULLY

G. Stanley Hall's "rubrics and criteria" for evaluating character

THE [intelligence] testers are beginning, but only beginning, the great work of applying psychology to practical life and have already shed much light upon individual differences and vocational fitness but have added little to our knowledge of psychology itself. They are as far from being able to measure general ability as educators to determine a curriculum which makes for general culture. They are also no less far from being able to measure the fundamental qualities upon which success in the art of living depends, such as the degree of vitality and the momentum of heredity, honesty and truthfulness, perseverance, the power of drawing heavily upon reserve energies without collapsing afterwards, as all successful men must do in crises; mobility up and down the pleasure-pain scale so that they will not be unduly exalted by success or lose the power to react from disaster, which is the supreme lesson of the story of the Cross and the Resurrection; how far they have attained self-knowledge and the ability to compensate for their weaknesses and defects; mobility up and down the age scale so that they keep in sympathetic touch with childhood, youth and those undeveloped, and also anticipate the lessons of old age; how far they were aggressive, independent, eager for and capable of leadership, on the one hand, or were born, or had learned, only to serve and follow, on the other; whether they were narrow, selfish and egoistic or how far they have developed wider interests in others, in causes, and in the great concerns of the community, state, nation, and world; how far their *vita sexualis* is sublimated and controlled; whether they love nature which is the root of all the natural sciences, literature and art; the number, direction and strength of all their dominant interests and how their leisure is spent; what is their attitude to religion and also toward the social, industrial and political institutions in which they live; whether their instincts and diatheses are radical or conservative. It is by rubrics and criteria of this sort that I would evaluate or rate my own character traits and those of others. The real significance of all tests depends upon the wisdom with which they are selected and the correct evaluation of just what they test, and the real worth for life of the kind of ability needed to meet it. And it is to this that far too little attention has been given.—*From The Life and Confessions of a Psychologist.*

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evidence of an extraordinary use of principles such as one finds in Robinson's Mind in the Making. It is all the more strange that the educator who, it seems, should have meant most to him—John Dewey—has played almost no direct part in the building up of this "laboratory school."

In Mr. Badley's book* there is only one reference to him, and that shows an utter misconception of Dewey's program and assigns to him the culture epoch schedule which he did so much to dethrone and put in its proper place. Much that Headmaster Badley has found of late in other experiments was all ready to his hand in the University of Chicago Elementary School in the middle nineties, had he been ready for it at that time.

Among the most valuable achievements of the school has been its demonstration of the possibilities of student-participation in school government. Mr. Badley has never been carried off his feet by fads of self-government, or by anarchistic theories of letting children do as they please. It would be difficult, however, to find a community in which social ideals on the basis of interest have a better opportunity to find realization. The old custom of requiring menial service from fags to be rendered to older privileged pupils had no place in Bedales, but seldom is so much menial service performed cheerfully and even with enjoyment by all classes and ages because it serves the school community.

It was not strange that when the war broke out this school whose system was so opposed to such wasteful methods of making social readjustments rose to the need most manfully. Out of 660 who had passed through the school 248 men and 42 women were in the service. 54, of the 76 who are no longer living, lost their lives in the war. Master Powell in the historical chapter tells how much more useful their students found the training they had received in regular use of the pick and shovel than the rifle practice introduced when the war began.

A Bedalian was graduated with high honors from an American university during the war. He had entered another university in this country on examination at the age of 15 and in his second year was a member of an exclusive literary club made up for the rest of its membership from seniors and graduate students. He was offered a fellowship or an instructorship in his Alma Mater but felt compelled to return to England to do his bit in the war. He is now on the staff at Bedales; and possibly the most interesting chapter in the book about the school is his Personal Impressions as Boy and as Master. In this he tells that when he returned to the school as master toward the close of the war "the war seemed once more incongruous and a mistake, and human life full of hope and beauty." This is the spirit of the school. A reexamination of a series of letters from the headmaster and from students written during the war shows a singular freedom from hatred and misconception. They seem at all times to have kept the sanity into which many of our compatriots and theirs are just now emerging.

There is no space to tell of the possibilities of hobbies at Bedales. These run from excavating Roman villas to butter making. There has been an excellent record for scholarship and for service to the community and the nation. A great educator used to say, years ago, that when he despaired of democracy he would run down to Brookline to spend a few days with Superintendent Dutton in his schools. Anyone who wishes to see what social progress in and through education can mean should find the chance to look in upon Mr. Badley's pioneering work in England.

FRANK A. MANNY

* Bedales, A Pioneer School, by J. H. Badley, M. A., Headmaster. Methuen and Company. 231 pp. Price 7/6.

RELATIVITY

"ADDRESSES by Hugo Bezdek, athletic director, and Dr. John Martin Thomas, president of Pennsylvania State College, will feature the annual mid-winter dinner at the Dauphin County branch of the Alumni Association next Thursday evening." Harrisburg Telegraph.

"THOUGH I LAY FOR A CENTURY DEAD"

"THE TOMBSTONE" is the name of a new honorary society recently organized by the junior class undergraduates of Columbia University, according to news accounts. Twenty students have banded themselves together in this society to perpetuate class spirit and loyalty.

"THE GANG'S ALL HERE"

"YELL LEADING" has been made a regular subject in the curriculum at Leland Stanford University. College credit will be given to sophomores who want to become assistant yell leaders, if they register for this course. The lectures will cover such subjects as "Bleacher psychology," "Correct use of the voice," and "What the coach expects of the yell leader." Various members of the faculty and the football coach will collaborate in giving the course.

"THE SUN DO MOVE"

NORTH CAROLINA has at last beaten Kentucky, and is now second only to Oklahoma. The state board of education, headed by the governor, has voted to forbid the teaching in the public schools of that state any form of evolution which makes it appear that man descended from any of the lower order of animals, monkeys, or anything else. Books on biology must, henceforth, leave out all reference to evolution if they are to be used in North Carolina. The governor's stand on the matter is unequivocal: "Evolution," says he, "evolution means progress, but it does not mean that man, God's highest creature, is descended from the monkey or any other animal. I do not believe he is, and I will not consent that any such doctrines, or the intimation of such a doctrine shall be taught in our public schools."

"AIN'T NATURE WONDERFUL"

"THERE IS NOTHING hid that shall not be revealed," said an ancient oracle. Nature is slowly yielding her secrets. She, it may be said, now has her back to the wall. In France, especially in the Paris College of Psychology, according to a copyrighted special cable to the New York Times, some amazing discoveries in the psychology of cats have been brought to light through the efforts of Professor Lepinay. "Cats," says the professor, "are very curious enigmas to which we rightly compare the fair sex. . . . To me they are little less than divinities, little more than animals. Unlike my friend, Dr. Phillippe Marrechal, I do not support the theory that animals are superior to men, but by instinct they make fewer mistakes than man in his researches and efforts. Generally speaking, we might train them as collaborators, learning better to utilize their associations and ideas, making ourselves understood through educative means. What has been done with men could be done with them, raising them from rank timid slaves to intelligent auxiliaries."

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BOOK REVIEWS

The March of Public Health

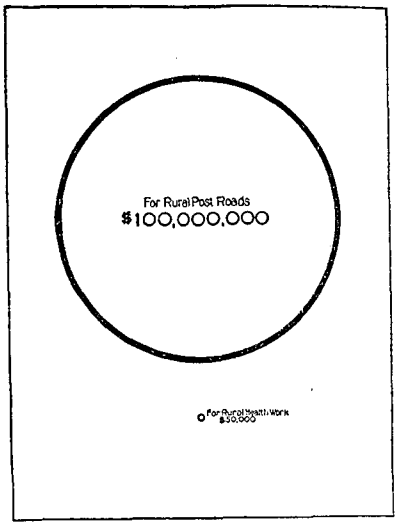
ENGLAND and the United States have a great many more things in common than the same language and a mutual, though somewhat diluted blood strain. One of these is a similar attitude regarding the public health. We in this country have builded on the firm foundations laid by Chadwick and Simon and it is not presumptuous to say that the English have garnered something from our own developments in sanitary science. Osler really belonged to both nations; Great Britain loaned Sir Arthur Newsholme to us for a welcome visit, and we sent our greatest sanitarian, Sedgwick, to England as an exchange professor. Two books on public health which have come out about the same time, one dealing with this country and the other with Great Britain, show a considerable similarity of ideas and an agreement regarding fundamental principles and details, too, which enhances our opinion that these two leading nations are in complete sanitary accord.

Public Health in the United States is a remarkable marshalling of modern knowledge regarding sanitary science; it presents in dazzling and stimulating form the achievements and the opportunities in preventive medicine. [Many charts from the advance sheets of this book were published in The Survey for June 15, 1923.] Mr. Moore starts from the beginning and traces the early history of sanitation. He presents in a striking way the human and economic costs of disease, the warfare against disease, the exploitation of ignorance regarding disease, the conquest of disease by health, the expanding field of public health; he winds up with a number of appendices crammed with useful information. His book is one of a series which is intended for that intelligent betwixt and between class which is neither the professional sanitarian nor the general laity, but is made up of the social worker, the preacher, the lawyer, the club woman, the teacher, and the practising physician.

A National Health Policy is, in the words of the author, "an attempt to summarize the more important principles which politicians and legislators must observe in dealing with problems of health if their efforts are to have any practical value." In this group of essays, which together are only about a fifth as long as Mr. Moore's excellent popular text book, Dr. Roberts discusses the philosophy of health, some political considerations, whether we Anglo-Saxons are suited to civilization, overcrowding disease, organizing the doctors, the panel system and free choice of medicine, and doctoring the healthy. His conclusion is a prophecy as to what efforts for health promotion will be in the future.

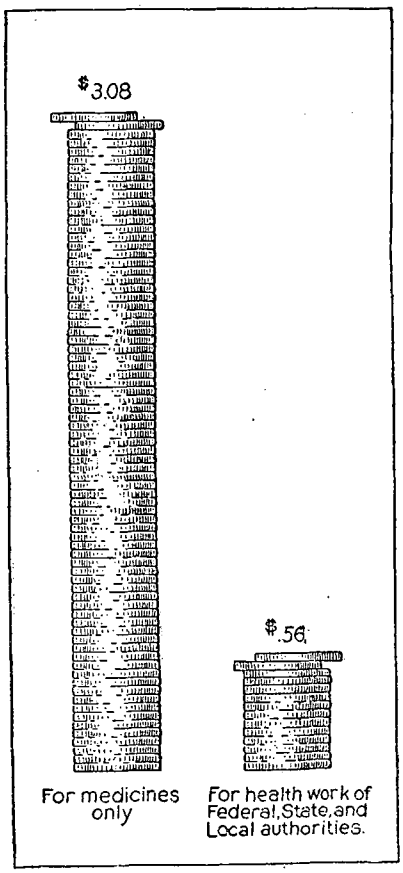
Some of the striking points of similarity in these two volumes are the acceptance of Professor Winslow's masterful definition of public health, the dictum that the most urgent of all health reforms is the education of the general public, the advocacy of the practise of preventive medicine by the general practitioner as exemplified by health examinations, and the idea that health is manifested not merely by dodging disease but by the enjoyment of living. Mr. Moore goes rather thoroughly into the sociological aspects of public health in dealing with school health work, dispensaries and health centers, industrial hygiene, recreation, and the problem of personnel, while Dr. Roberts has rather more to say about the position of the medical profession in this country. Conservative physicians in the United States, who (not entirely understanding what it is all about) look askance at the tendency toward the socialization of medicine, might have some real cause for concern if we had the same system as that created by the Poor Law, the Insurance Act, and other English measures which, by what Dr. Roberts calls the panel system, provide doctors for various classes of persons whether they want them or not. They are both good books and their defects are of a wholly minor nature.

Public health has behind it some notable conquests, but the future holds even greater possibilities for noteworthy attainment. As Dr. Haven Emerson so well puts it in his introduction to Mr. Moore's book, "we know infinitely more than we



From Public Health in the United States, Harpers

In the federal budget for 1923-24—rural health work and rural post roads



From Public Health in the United States, Harpers

What the public paid per capita for all medicines (except biological products) manufactured in the United States in 1921 and for all official health activities in the same year

PUBLIC HEALTH IN THE UNITED STATES, *by Harry H. Moore. Harper & Bros. 526 pp. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

A NATIONAL HEALTH POLICY, *by Harry Roberts. The Labour Publishing Co., London. 123 pp. Price 3s. 6d.*

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use." If legislators in England would read and take to heart the material in Dr. Roberts' book, as he evidently wants them to, and if the educated classes who mold public opinion in this country would read and absorb the information available in Mr. Moore's compendium, the English speaking races might be immeasurably better off.

JAMES A. TOBEY

Our Common Enemies

THE COMMUNICABLE DISEASES, *by Allan J. McLaughlin, M.D. Harper & Bros. 269 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

WHILE Pasteur and Lister are already historical and almost mythical figures in the mind of many a school child and even of school teachers and newswriters, they and their truths of theory and facts are still young and fresh in the service of the community. Dr. McLaughlin, no mere collector of the commonplaces of public health method and practice, but himself a contributor to the standards of procedure, a practitioner in the life of cholera, plague and typhoid control abroad and at home, a courageous and ready officer of health who has made his mark in local, state and federal positions, gives us the brief and simple facts about the communicable diseases which have been established by students all around the world during the past fifty years, so that we may act with intelligence and good conscience in our personal and public relationships. When we say communicable, we mean quite truthfully preventable, and this book will add impetus to our intention to make prevention in all these afflictions a reality in the near future, as it is already an achieved possibility in the case of many of them.

In the process of interpretation for an ever-broadening public, the writer on preventive medicine must address a particular audience, keeping in view the probable information and intelligence level of those he seeks to reach. Anyone who has been through high school and many who have, without that help, become familiar with those few facts of natural science which are needed to follow the adjustments of man to the attacks of his many biological competitors will find that this book of Dr. McLaughlin's answers many of the questions which the family physician is so often too hurried to attend to when sickness in the household brings them to mind. The school teacher, the nurse, the physician will especially welcome the brevity and completeness of Dr. McLaughlin's presentation of the stories which they are called upon to teach over and over again. Sufficient reference is made to the original contributions of science to lead the critical reader to further study. The quotations are apt and illuminating, especially those from the leaders of our present American practice—Chapin, Victor Vaughan, Park and Rosenau.

The volume is the first of a series planned to put into action the still unused store of facts of modern science. Mr. Moore's book in the same series, reviewed in this issue, tells the story of administrative successes, which is accordingly omitted here. But many practical suggestions and specific descriptions are offered which will be a helpful guide to action.

Lastly and quite properly, the reasons for our failure to prevent the preventable are offered frankly and without apology. No one can read this clear appeal to our intelligence without consciously or inadvertently becoming a disciple of that creed of public health which in recent years has played a vigorous part in molding public opinion to humanitarian ends.

If nothing else were gained by these sharply etched portraits of our common enemies, the communicable diseases, it is well to have the responsibility for most of them placed squarely upon the individual and upon personal relationships; instead of permitting us to accuse our environment and thus escape any direct call to action. If parents and teachers, voters and officials knew this little book as well as they know the contents of the daily paper—its sports, fashions, murders—there would be more happiness and less sudden tragedy, more self-control and less arbitrary ordering of our lives by law and regulations.

HAVEN EMERSON, M.D.

For the Health Bookshelf

ON the heels of the selected bibliography of health books published a short time ago by the National Health Council and distributed free for the asking, comes the announcement of the National Health Series, prepared and sponsored by the council and published by Funk and Wagnalls. The series will include twenty volumes of about seventy pages each, written by leaders in the various fields of health—public and private, mental and physical, infant and adult. The books are bound in fabrikoid and sell at thirty cents the volume. The first five, prepared by C.-E. A. Winslow (Man and the Microbe), Richard A. Bolt (The Baby's Health), Allan J. McLaughlin (Personal Hygiene), Donald B. Armstrong (Community Health), and Francis Carter Wood (Cancer), are announced for immediate publication.

From the American Association of Hospital Social Workers comes word of a bibliography on Hospital Social Work, prepared by the association's committee on bibliography, of which Ida M. Cannon is chairman. The committee has read some 700 books and articles, and presents 300 selected references, classified, annotated, and cross-indexed. It may be obtained for twenty-five cents (to cover the cost of printing) from Lena R. Waters, executive secretary, Johns Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore, Md.

The Twentieth Amendment?

CHILD LABOR AND THE CONSTITUTION, *by Raymond G. Fuller. Thomas Y. Crowell Co. 323 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

MR. FULLER is an ardent advocate of a federal child labor amendment. He has, however, given too many years to the study of child labor to believe that any prohibitory law, however necessary and desirable, may afford in itself a constructive or thoroughgoing solution of the problem. Neither state or federal law has, to any appreciable extent, sought to prohibit the employment of children in agriculture, in which occupation alone nearly two-thirds of all the child laborers in America under the age of sixteen are employed. Yet many of the worst evils of child labor are found in the rural districts. Even the standards recommended by the conferences called by the Children's Bureau in 1919 would only partially extend the prohibitory laws to agriculture.

Child work, Mr. Fuller does well to remind us, is in itself no evil. It is good for the child to work at school and at other chores. The evil lies in labor which deprives

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the child of his schooling and play. The task of social reform, Mr. Fuller ably points out, is not merely to keep the child from harmful labor but to see that he has the education suited to his needs and ability and the recreation required for his well being. These positive aspects of child labor, it must be remembered, are reached by no federal amendment. They must be dealt with by the states and by the voluntary cooperation of parents and of social and communal agencies.

The evils of child labor, Mr. Fuller shows, are fairly widespread throughout the country. The shame is not confined to a few backward states, and federal action can scarcely be asked for on any such score. Child labor is not an exclusive heritage of the South. The legislative standards, for that matter, of Alabama and Tennessee are higher than those of California, Michigan, Maine and Pennsylvania. The backwardness of some of the southern states is to be ascribed to late industrial development rather than to unregenerate Bourbonism.

While discarding and refuting many extravagant claims put forward in behalf of a federal amendment, Mr. Fuller does believe Congress should have power concurrent with that of the several states to limit or prohibit the labor of children under eighteen years of age. He hopes that the amendment conferring the power to act upon Congress will galvanize the states into action so that there will be little occasion for the exercise of Congressional authority. He does expect, however, the duty of establishing minimum child labor standards throughout the Union to devolve upon Congress, leaving the power to the states in their discretion to enact and enforce higher norms.

Mr. Fuller is of opinion that the nullification of the two federal child labor acts by the Supreme Court may prove to be a blessing in disguise. Both federal enactments he regarded as attempts to reach by indirection an evil which could not be directly restrained under the Constitution. Mr. Fuller does not rest his case for federal action on the mere use by the backward state of the channels of interstate commerce to defeat the child labor policy of the high standards states, but he believes that "the American nation, as a nation, should have the right and power to protect its most precious resources, its children, who are its future citizens, from exploitation and neglect" in whatever part of the country they may happen to live.

While Mr. Fuller is naturally impatient with the orthodox theories as to the sovereign rights of states, he recognizes, however, that there must be a division of functions between the federal government and the state and other local governing units, and that there has been a tendency to turn too frequently to the national government in matters that should have the attention of the home folk. But he believes that there is "a uniqueness in the child labor evil which justifies the subordination of ordinary political considerations." In view of the peculiar history of child labor in this country it may be possible for some to agree with Mr. Fuller as to the desirability of a federal amendment giving Congress the power to deal with child labor generally so that there may be no further quibbling as to its legal power, and still to question the expediency of Congress exercising its power where the evil assumes no interstate aspect. In any event, a careful consideration of the proper correlation of the functions of state and nation is not obviated by the adoption of the proposed federal amendment.

B. V. C.

Economics and Eggplant

ESSAYS IN ECONOMIC THEORY, *by Simon Nelson Patten; edited by Rexford G. Tugwell, with an introduction by Henry R. Seager. Alfred A. Knopf. 399 pp. Price $5.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

PROFESSOR SEAGER opens his introduction to this rich sheaf of hitherto uncollected periodical writings of the late Simon N. Patten by appraising their author as "the most original and suggestive economist that America has yet produced." Most economists of established reputation will agree with Profesor Seager. Certainly no economist has had so far-reaching and dynamic an influence upon the development of social work. Many of the foremost leaders in the transformation of traditional charity into what has come to be recognized as inductive human engineering drew their inspiration from him. Professor Seager himself was long associated with Simon N. Patten, both as student and colleague.

Dr. Edward T. Devine, Samuel McCune Lindsay, Frederick A. Cleveland, William H. Allen, the late Walter E. Weyl, author of the New Democracy, were his students. His Kennedy lectures delivered before The New York School of Philanthropy (now the New York School of Social Work) in 1905 and subsequently published under the title The New Basis of Civilization profoundly affected the thinking of the younger generation that heard them and exerted a great influence toward that modification of underlying philosophic conceptions which is indicated by the change of name of the school before which they were delivered. Most social workers who value the discipline of rigorous economic reasoning hold Simon Nelson Patten in grateful memory.

Few things in the world are so fascinating as the visible growth of a human mind. Simon N. Patten's books—The Theory of Social Forces, The Development of English Thought, The Theory of Prosperity, etc.—while stimulatingly individual, have nevertheless much of the inevitably impersonal flavor of carefully edited books. The essays in the volume under notice have not, to be sure, the easy informality of notebooks or diaries. Many of them, like the study of Malthus and Ricardo, The Theory of Dynamic Economics, Pragmatism and Social Science, etc., are stiff if stimulating reading. But they are yet sufficiently informal, sufficiently occasional, to reveal the growth of the author's mind and ideas more intimately then his more comprehensive volumes.

One of his most valuable contributions was his penetrating interpretation of the significance of consumption as contrasted with the mere production of wealth.

> The utility of an article of food largely depends upon the ability of the housekeepers to cook it properly. The great consumption of meat and wheat-bread among Americans is largely due to the ignorance of their cooks, who do not usually possess sufficient skill to make ordinary vegetables palatable. The influence of good cooking is readily seen in the change which naturally takes place in the diet of an American when he goes to France and Germany. Those who at home rarely eat any vegetables other than potatoes will in France or Germany freely consume all kinds of vegetables, for the simple reason that the cooking is so superior that a taste is soon acquired for many dishes against which the poor cooking of his own country had given him a prejudice. We have now arrived at one ultimate law in the theory of the consumption of wealth. . . .

Simon N. Patten was reared on an Illinois farm. As Professor Seager says in his introduction, such observations of European habits and customs as (*Continued on page* 547)

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SURVEY READING LISTS: NUMBER THREE

Social Hygiene

BOOKS FOR PARENTS, TEACHERS AND YOUNG PEOPLE

By M. J. Exner, M.D.

THERE is probably no field of human interest in which wise discrimination in the choice of literature is more important than in the field of sex. The sex motive runs through the warp and woof of human life, profoundly influencing its development, outlook and behavior. It is intimately tied up with the individual's emotional life so that in touching sex we touch the deep springs of life. It is of the utmost importance, therefore, that literature on the subject, especially that for young people, be scientifically, pedagogically and emotionally sound.

There is also probably no field in which a larger proportion of the literature is inadequate or bad. A naturally keen human interest in the subject, warped to morbidness by society's attitude of shrinking evasion, has made the subject a fruitful one for exploitation, hence a mass of crude, poor literature written mainly to sell. Conspicuous progress toward an understanding of the complex subject of sex has been made only in comparatively recent years. Much of the literature written in the best light of a few years ago is known to be misleading today.

There is a considerable list of more technical books written by scientific students of the subject in many lands, who have made their contributions toward a body of scientifically derived data upon which to build a sound sex-social philosophy—books which are important for the special student but which are often dangerous for the undiscriminating layman or for young people.

Among the notable contributions to the more scholarly sex literature of recent years we have books which reflect the modern movement for greater freedom of sex expression but which interpret that movement dangerously in that they emphasize individual sex adjustment to the exclusion or disregard of social sex adjustment.

The following are among the more useful of the books for parents, teachers and young people: Bigelow's Sex Education is an excellent introduction to the educational attack upon sex-social problems. Galloway's Biology of Sex is valuable for its interpretation of the meaning of sex in human life and its educational principles and methods. The Way Life Begins, by Cady, with its illustrative material, is of practical help to parents and teachers for developing the progressive story of life. Gruenberg's High Schools and Sex Education is indispensable to school authorities and teachers who are disposed to meet their responsibility for the sex-social aspect of their educational task. It is a sane, scholarly guide to the normal integration of sex instruction in the existing courses to which sex relates. The same author's Parents and Sex Education is primarily for parents of children of preschool age. The book is, however, of value to teachers, especially because of its unusually clear treatment of the psychology of the child in relation to sex. Galloway's The Father and His Boy is a helpful book to enable the intelligent father to understand boy nature and sex development as a basis of wise guidance. Gallichan's A Textbook of Sex Education is a good practical guide on the whole range of the problem of sex education of children and adolescents.

The recent book, Men, Women and God, by Gray, is timely. It is to my knowledge the only book written from the religious point of view on the subject of sex, which is in the main scientifically and educationally sound. It is splendid for a re-education in outlook on this subject.

Moore's Keeping in Condition, and Hall's From Youth Into Manhood are helpful for the boy of 13 to 16. Moore's book is commendable in that it makes sex instruction a natural feature of a broader keeping-fit program. Hood's For Girls and the Mothers of Girls, and Smith's The Three Gifts of Life are suitable for girls and young women. Exner's The Rational Sex Life for Men, Galloway's Sex and Life, and Gulick's The Dynamic of Manhood are written primarily for young men over 16. Exner's book gives practical help to the young man in his fight for character. Galloway's book presents a scientific and inspiring interpretation of the significance of sex in human life. Gulick's book is fine for its philosophic and idealistic treatment of the great human hungers. We have for young people no more thought-provoking and reassuring treatise on the sex factor in life, as it bears on human happiness and social welfare, than Ellis' Little Essays of Love and Virtue. It should be read by adults too. Jewett's The Next Generation is a good simple book to help young people understand and appreciate the principles of heredity and eugenics.

Dr. Exner Recommends

BIOLOGY OF SEX, *for parents and teachers, by T. W. Galloway.* 1922. *D. C. Heath & Co. Price* $1.24 *postpaid of The Survey.*

*THE WAY LIFE BEGINS, *by B. C. and V. M. Cady.* 1917. *American Social Hygiene Association. Price* $1.50 *postpaid of The Survey.*

HIGH SCHOOLS AND SEX EDUCATION, *by B. C. Gruenberg.* 1922. *U. S. Public Health Service. Price* $ .50 *postpaid of The Survey.*

*PARENTS AND SEX EDUCATION: CHILDREN UNDER SCHOOL AGE, *by B. C. Gruenberg.* 1923. *American Social Hygiene Association. Price* $1.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*

THE FATHER AND HIS BOY, *by T. W. Galloway.* 1921. *Association Press. Price* $1.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*

TEXTBOOK OF SEX EDUCATION FOR PARENTS AND TEACHERS, *by W. M. Gallichan.* 1921. *Small, Maynard & Co. Price* $2.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*

*KEEPING IN CONDITION, *by H. H. Moore.* 1919. *Macmillan Co. Price* $1.20 *postpaid of The Survey.*

*FOR GIRLS AND THE MOTHERS OF GIRLS, *by M. G. Hood.* 1914. *Bobbs-Merrill Co. Price* $1.50 *postpaid of The Survey.*

THREE GIFTS OF LIFE, *by Nellie M. Smith.* 1921. *Dodd. Mead & Co. Price* $1.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*

RATIONAL SEX LIFE FOR MEN, *by M. J. Exner.* 1914. *Association Press. Price* $.90 *postpaid of The Survey.*

SEX AND LIFE, *by T. W. Galloway.* 1921. *The Association Press. Price* $ .75 *postpaid of The Survey.*

THE DYNAMIC OF MANHOOD, *by Luther H. Gulick.* 1917. *The Association Press. Price* $1.15 *postpaid of The Survey.*

THE NEXT GENERATION. *A study in the Physiology of Inheritance, by F. G. Jewett.* 1914. *Ginn & Co. Price* $1.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*

The titles marked with an asterisk are to be included also in Mrs. Falconer's list.

The next reading list, dealing with Nutrition for Children, will be prepared by Dr. W. R. P. Emerson.

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SURVEY READING LISTS: NUMBER FOUR

Social Hygiene

BOOKS FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

By Martha P. Falconer

THE social worker deals with problems in the entire field of human relationships, but I believe that most men and women in the profession will agree with two points recently made in one of the addresses delivered at the National Social Hygiene Conference. These are:

1. That practically all other social movements are dependent, in large part, upon the problems which are being attacked by the social hygiene movement, and
2. That the social hygiene movement depends, for its fullest effectiveness, upon these other types of social agencies for co-operative service.

Assuming the truth of these two statements it is evident that the working library of any social worker should include at least a part of the fundamental literature of social hygiene. It is well, here, to remember that social hygiene, as it is accepted generally in the United States, has both a broader and a narrower connotation than is given it in England and on the Continent. There its connotations are mainly medical, dealing with a broad group of maladies to combat which many research and propaganda agencies have been formed. Here its field is limited medically, but broader socially, as it embraces problems dealing with and growing out of sex relations. Medically its activities are confined to the discovery and development of measures to control and prevent the venereal diseases. In this connection a book well suited to convey a clear understanding of the social significance of venereal disease is Stokes' Today's World Problem in Disease Prevention. A second authoritative and enlightening volume is Solomon's Syphilis of the Innocent.

Dr. Exner, in his article, has emphasized what seems the strongest and most constructive approach. The fact is that social hygiene in its *positive* aspects aims to reach not only those who might otherwise become immoral, but *every* individual. Sex education should be a natural, logical part of the life-training program of all. The social worker, however, is confronted in many instances with the tangled lives of those who never received this kind of training. Divorce, illegitimacy, prostitution and other forms of sex delinquency are complications met with daily—almost hourly—in some agencies. Therefore such books as Flexner's Prostitution in Europe, Royden's Sex and Common Sense and Gray's Men, Women and God will be found of distinct value. One of the most helpful of the recent publications dealing with these behavior problems is The Unadjusted Girl by William I. Thomas, with a foreword by Mrs. W. F. Dummer.

In dealing with youth and as books to recommend to parents for their use in instructing their children, four most helpful volumes are Gruenberg's Parents and Sex Education—Children Under School Age, Cady's The Way Life Begins, Moore's Keeping in Condition, and Hood's For Girls and the Mothers of Girls. As a basic contribution to pedagogy and a book the philosophy of which may well aid the social worker, Bigelow's Sex Education occupies an important place. The Sex Factor in Human Life, a book by Galloway, prepared in question and answer form, will be found a distinct asset to the working equipment of those active in any social betterment agency.

The charming articles by Havelock Ellis grouped under the title of Little Essays of Love and Virtue have a broad appeal for the social worker and, in fact, contain a great deal of thought-provoking material most interestingly presented.

An increasing demand for accurate, wholesome, well-written social hygiene literature is indicative of a general desire to replace the vocabulary and philosophy of the maudlin, unsound, and vicious publications which, in the past, have often been numbered among the ten best sellers, with literature of a more thoughtful and truthful type. That there is still room for more of the right kind of literature is patent, but social workers will find that at least a working acquaintance with social hygiene can be gained through a study of the authoritative books already published. The American Social Hygiene Association will be glad to furnish a more comprehensive bibliography on request.

Before closing this summary I wish to call attention to two of the many thoughtful articles which have appeared in the magazines during 1923. The first, Changes in Social Thought and Standards Which Affect the Family (The Family, July 1923) is the address delivered by Porter Lee at the National Conference of Social Work; the second, Marriage—A Selective Process, appeared in The Atlantic Monthly (November 1923) and is by Richard Boardman. They will repay the reading of anyone interested in the better adjustment of human beings, one to another.

Mrs. Falconer Recommends

TODAY'S WORLD PROBLEM IN DISEASE PREVENTION, *by J. H. Stokes. 1919. To be had on application to the Division of Venereal Diseases, U. S. Public Health Service, Washington, D. C.*

SYPHILIS OF THE INNOCENT, *by H. C. Solomon. U. S. Interdepartmental Social Hygiene Board.*

PROSTITUTION IN EUROPE, *by Abraham Flexner. 1914. Century Co. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

PROSTITUTION IN THE UNITED STATES, *by H. M. Woolston. 1921. Century Co. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

SEX AND COMMON SENSE, *by A. Maude Royden. 1922. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

*MEN, WOMEN AND GOD, *by A. H. Gray. 1923. George H. Doran Co. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey. The Association Press, Paper, Price $ .60 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE UNADJUSTED GIRL, *by W. I. Thomas. 1923. Little, Brown & Co. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

*SEX EDUCATION, *by Maurice A. Bigelow. 1919. The Macmillan Co. Price $1.60 postpaid of The Survey.*

*THE SEX FACTOR IN HUMAN LIFE, *by T. W. Galloway. 1921. American Social Hygiene Association. Price $1.25 postpaid of The Survey.*

*LITTLE ESSAYS OF LOVE AND VIRTUE, *by Havelock Ellis. 1922. George H. Doran Co. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

The titles marked with an asterisk are to be included also in Dr. Exner's list.

List No. 1, Psychiatry, appeared in the issue for November 1, 1923; No. 2, The New School, December 15, 1923.

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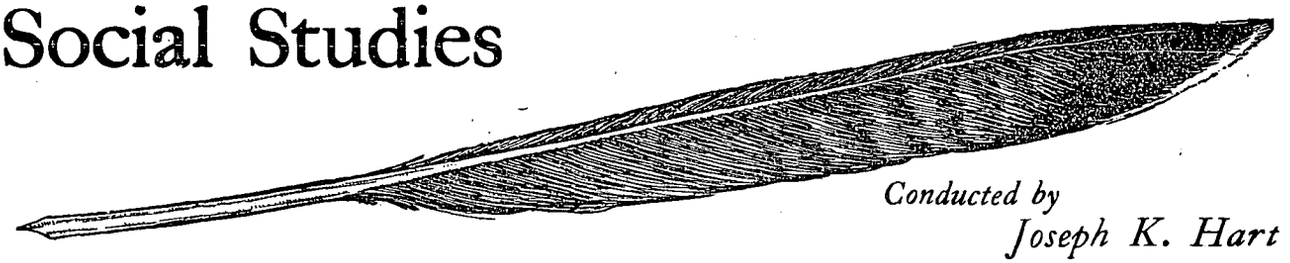
Social Studies



Conducted by
Joseph K. Hart

The Emotional Group

THE primitive group was primarily an instrument of action—usually, action according to a pattern fixed by the folkways. Occasionally, however, even a primitive group could be surprised out of its folkway conventions and thrown headlong into some impulsive precipitancy. All such groups, even the most serious, had moments of course when they took time less heavily. Even "Lo, the poor Indian," could laugh. And in a time of crisis, the primitive group might turn itself into a solemn conclave to consider the "state of the nation." That is to say, the primitive group, while being primarily an instrument of some program of action, was still human enough to revel at times in a surge of emotion, and even, upon occasion, to undertake a primitive form of deliberation.

Modern life, in addition to specializing us in innumerable objective ways, has specialized us internally, also. Though most of our modern groups are primarily instruments of action—interested in getting something done—there are other groups that have little interest, at least as groups, in getting anything done. They are interested in stirring up emotions, in releasing "good feelings." Whether anything comes of these stirrings and releases is of minor importance; having an emotion is its own reward. The members of groups of this type "get together" for the purpose of having emotions. These emotions may range through many areas of social value. To the "community at large" they may seem to be sordid, or ominous, or degrading. But to the group experiencing them, they are always "good." Such a group is frequently torn by the question whether they should let these great emotions burn like a flame in the dry stubble of the world or keep such priceless jewels securely locked within their own group walls.

To be sure, every such group, in the modern world, exists in the midst of other more inclusive groups, particularly the national group. At times, a nation may become one vast emotion; and at all times, a nation feels two supreme emotions: fear, or its shadow, pride; and patriotism, or its shadow, subordination. All lesser groups exist more or less under the complete domination of these two super-emotions. Hence, all lesser groups must "watch their steps" a bit. That makes them all somewhat self-conscious. And the emotions of the emotional groups show the effects of this self-consciousness: they are not altogether spontaneous and free.

THIS lack of spontaneity arises from two sets of factors. In the first place, these groups meet according to a schedule, at a time set weeks before, perhaps, and therefore with no reference to whether the members are in the mood for emotions or not. And, second, the emotions that may be released have been carefully selected and certified, so that the members know beforehand just what the emotions for the day will be. At a selected time and place, the members gather for the purpose of having one or more selected and certified emotions!

The process by which the emotional atmosphere is "worked up" is capable of a good deal of variation, though at the risk of missing the end sought for. If the meeting is in the hands of an amateur, the emotions may emerge looking like bedraggled fowls in a rain, and the meeting is likely to end in disappointment, if not in a general "grouch." Such a disaster is not often allowed. A "spell-binder" is on hand, as a usual thing; and the members have the delicious experience of feeling in themselves and witnessing in others the gradual rise of that "spontaneous enthusiasm" for some "worthy cause," which is of the essence of a noble emotion. If they fail to get this experience, they feel the meeting was a failure.

The technique of the successful leader is quite definite. The members expect, of course, to become emotional. They have met for that purpose. But they cannot rise to this emotional state unaided; nor would a cheaply bought emotion prove satisfying in the end; they "expect something for their money." There are certain words and phrases that have the value of sign-posts for the various stages in the progress of the emotion. When these words and phrases are uttered the hearers feel themselves "lifted up." But these signals must be handled in recognized ways—with the proper atmosphere. One man uses one of these phrases or words in such a way as to leave his hearers cold. That is a disquieting event. The group member expects, when he hears that word or phrase, to feel delicious tremors run up and down his spine. It is little less than a psychological tragedy when the expected tremor fails to show up. The sense of being "bored to death" may eventually cause the disintegration of the group.

NOW an emotion may be a precursor to thinking. But the processes by which experience passes from an emotional level to a thinking level involve a great deal of effort, some more or less fearsome adventuring into the unknown and the danger of becoming critical. Hence, mostly we are content to "experience" our emotions, enjoying them, if possible, and letting the matter rest there. In this way, excess energies are drained away in time of emotional crisis and we are able to escape both from thinking and from acting.

The old lady who got a "wonderful blessing" whenever her pastor said "Mesopotamia" used up all her energies absorbing her blessing, thereby escaping the necessity of doing anything active.

The Hebrews, in the crisis of exile "by the rivers of Babylon" "sat down and wept." Weeping used up their excess energies: that was all it did. It opened no heavens; it softened no tyrant's heart. They might have used those energies in finding a way out of their difficulty. That would probably have been presumptuous, however; and it would certainly have been hard work. An orgy of weeping was far more enjoyable, especially as it seems to have ended with a burning imprecation:

> Oh, Daughter of Babylon,
> Happy shall he be that taketh and dasheth thy little ones
> Against a rock!

This experience represents but a moment in the life of a still somewhat primitive group. To certain modern groups, having an emotion is an end in itself. They have grown weary of action; they have not learned to deliberate; they have one outlet—they can "emote"! They like it. It feeels good. And if it does nothing else it at least adds to the gayety of life!

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Our Social Institutions
A Course for High Schools

XI. Social Wastes

In crime, vice and delinquencies of many sorts, our communities use up amazing amounts of social energy, and expend uncomputed amounts of wealth. Ignorance, carelessness and ruthlessness cause endless waste of the resources of the world, human and material. One of the chief obstacles to human progress is waste.

1. Forms and Extent of Waste

Americans have assumed that our natural resources are practically inexhaustible. Are they? Is our coal inexhaustible? Our oil? Our timber? Our metals? Our soil? Our fisheries? What has been the nature of our use of each of these natural forms of wealth? How have we conserved or wasted them? To what extent have we used "remnants" in our manufacturing processes?

What waste exists in the use of our labor power? Is unemployment profitable, or is it waste? How could you classify the mentally defective? Gamblers, the vicious classes and individuals, and the unproductive, generally? Is disease useful or is it wasteful? If the latter, is it preventable waste? Is lavish expenditure for luxury useful or wasteful?

2. The Waste of War

Passing by the question as to whether war has ever served any sound social purpose, consider the social wastes resulting from war. How much wealth was consumed by the warring nations in the World War? Has the late war's consumption of wealth ceased, or is it still going on? How many lives were destroyed in the World War? How many permanent cripples and invalids were produced? What did the world purchase with these resources? What part of America's national income is now being absorbed by war expenses, past, present and future?

3. The Prevention of Waste

What efforts, if any, are being made by individuals, communities, or nations to prevent waste and to conserve the resources of the world? Is everybody in favor of these efforts? Who is opposed to them? Why? Who, if anyone, is opposed to the conservation of the American forests? What is being done to prevent the wastes of unemployment? The wastes of human life? The wastes of war? Of disease? Of crime and vice?

4. Can We Have a Social Surplus?

If we had less waste, would we have more wealth? What would more wealth mean? What part of the nation's productivity is saved each year? Where is this saving preserved? What do the savings banks tell us about the yearly savings of the people? Is a "social surplus" desirable? What effect would a surplus have upon the work habits of the people? Do people work when they have plenty of money? If the destruction of wealth in war makes people work more, is not war a good thing?

What should a community do with its surplus: build schools, roads, museums; make a finer city; develop beautiful parks and playgrounds; turn it over to a few to spend in some conspicuous way; throw it into the ocean; or use it up in war? What are our present methods of disposing of our surplus? Are these methods intelligent? Were they worked out intentionally and set up because they were reasonable? Is it proper to question these methods? Has every individual the right to waste "his own property"? Has a community such a right? A nation?

References:

Towne, Social Problems.
Burch and Patterson, American Social Problems.
Bulletins of the U. S. Bureau of Labor, Nos. 109 and 172.

Questions on
Current Issues

Labor and the Lion

The tendency of every "out" is so to misstate the facts about the "ins" as to make the more likely a quick reversal of positions. Radical groups have long been engaged in that sort of warfare; and they have won, thereby, the hatred of those honest bulwarks of the state—the parties that have been in power. Hatred is, of course, a not distant neighbor of fear. For thousands of years, the radical group has been "in the wrong," in the sense that the "out" can do little but criticise the "in." But now in England there will be a clear opportunity for the honest conservative to set the radical a lesson in good manners. Russia has been in the hands of the radicals, of course, for five years or more; but the conservative has never felt any need of reticence or of good manners in discussing Russia because he has been able to convince himself that the Russian radical won his "inning" by unfair, base, cruel, unspeakable measures—measures which fully justified the conservative in becoming as nearly like these objects of his contempt as possible. But in England, now, no such defense is possible. The labor group has won its present position by means that are as honest, as irreproachable, as any party has ever shown. That party is now "in"; a most important question therefore is: "Will the "respectable" parties, the "outs," show to the world that fine honor toward opponents, that meticulous regard for facts, that splendid "sportsmanship," that they have always complained was lacking in the attitudes of the radicals?"

1. Can Labor Be Trusted?

Are workingmen human beings? What is a human being? Do human beings ever wear anything other than top hats, Prince Albert coats and spats? Would a human being ever carry an umbrella unfurled? What do human beings think about: landed estates? Income taxes? Unemployment? Peace on earth? What reasons have the older parties for distrusting Labor? Or don't they need reasons? Must we always have reasons for everything we do? What new factors, if any, are introduced into government with the coming of a labor ministry? What are the disquieting items in the labor program? Have workers any interest in bringing society to the brink of chaos? If the British Labor government succeeds what will that mean as to governments in other parts of the world? What is the likelihood of a labor government in France? In America? Would an American Labor Party be "un-American"?

2. Social Progress

Viscount Haldane, considered by many one of the ablest administrative officials Great Britain has produced in this generation, is an adherent of the Labor Party and is now a member of the cabinet. How can such a fact be accounted for? What effect has popular education upon the location of authority in the body politic? Has education had anything to do with the rise of the Labor Party? When Viscount Haldane said recently that the Labor Party was the only party in Great Britain that had any interest in education, what did he mean? What could he have meant? Does the growth of popular education offer any meaning to the ancient privileges of the "upper classes"? Should we really have a free and universal education? What is the likelihood of general social progress, through education, under the leadership of the Labor Party?

References:

pp. 496, 498.

The books mentioned on this page may be obtained through The Survey Book Department.

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The Story of Mildred

(Continued from page 503)

to understand things even when all the words needed to express them wouldn't come, who talked a language she could understand, who somehow made the whole business of life seems a little less desperate and hopeless. It was a comfort to be told she was expected to come back again next week.

Encouraging Independence

In that first interview Mildred's physician made one small discovery which determined the first concrete move in the treatment; that Mildred did not like to be conducted by the "teacher" to and from the bureau. So that same afternoon the social worker arranged with Mrs. Martin to have her come alone. A small matter this, perhaps; but of no slight import when we consider that it helped to give the patient, at the outset, the impression that her friends at the bureau believed her to be a competent young person. Never once did she fail to make her appearance at the appointed hour. At this same interview the mother agreed that Mildred might occupy a couch in the sitting-room alone during the summer. Soon afterward Mildred's enuresis vanished, though no attempt to deal with it on a physical basis had been made. Though there was a slight return of the trouble later, this happy change doubtless contributed its share toward the more cheerful attitude which the child came to have, and toward the gradual improvement in relations between the sisters.

Changing Attitude

An attempt to modify the attitude of the home toward Mildred's problem was definitely made by the social worker a week after the first talk with her mother. The worker reports:

> Explained to Mrs. Martin how very sensitive Mildred is about her school work and urged that she use every means possible to keep her sisters from taunting her about it or from comparing her progress with that of her younger sister. Suggested that they all treat Mildred just as they would any other child her age, emphasizing the fact that now she is having the better school opportunities she will learn very rapidly and will soon be in her own class. Told her that if the family encouraged her and expected her to succeed she would be happier and would make better progress. Pointed out danger of sensitive people withdrawing into themselves, brooding over their disabilities and difficulties, and developing a set feeling of inferiority. Suggested that if there was anything Mildred did more successfully than her sisters, this be picked out for special commendation and attention. Suggested that it is better for Mildred to talk things out than to shut herself up and withdraw.

The mother's frequent comments on Mildred's better behavior are an indication of the manner in which she entered into the plans of the worker, who considers her cooperation remarkable.

Stimulating Growth of the Personality

A policy of attempting to broaden Mildred's field of interests was outlined by the psychiatrist with two points in mind: first, that new interests would awaken her mentally and help to overcome her absorption in her own inner life; and second, that they would remove her, for certain definite periods, from the depressing influences of the home.

Within the first week Mrs. Martin's consent was gained to Mildred's joining a Girl Scout organization, and the worker at once proceeded to run down one composed of little girls of about her age, to arouse the child's interest in it, and to take her to the first meeting. Fresh stimulus had to be applied to work her up to the point of actually joining, and money had to be found to meet weekly dues. She did join in May, taking two of her friends in with her.

Another enterprise which aimed at broadening the child's interests, and which helped also, during the first month, to lay a firm foundation of good understanding between the worker and her young charge, included a morning at the Natural History Museum, lunch, and an afternoon at the Hippodrome. The worker says, in advance, that she "feels that if she (Mildred) has an outing which none of the other members of the family have had, it will give her some little feeling of superiority over her sisters." Throughout the day the child was completely passive. Only three or four times did she voluntarily make a brief remark; "during the show she did so far forget herself as to laugh very quietly on two occasions." She parted from the visitor silently, without expressing any pleasure over the day. Yet she said she was going to take some of her friends and visit the museum again. An attempt was also made, to interest Mildred in using the public library.

Attacking Family Problems

One other line of endeavor, initiated at this time, failed to bring results. This was an attempt to establish helpful relations with Mr. Martin, whose state of health, drinking, and failure adequately to support his family were felt to bear a real though not easily measured relation to his little daughter's difficulties. The interview was pleasant and friendly enough, but it proved entirely fruitless.

Keeping in Touch with the School

While efforts were being made to change Mildred's attitude and the attitudes of those about her, tutoring had gone steadily on. The bureau worker visited Mildred in the classroom and kept in touch with the school situation through the visiting teacher. Evidence that the varied endeavors were bringing results came at the close of the first month of treatment, early in May, when Mildred confided to the psychiatrist that she was to be promoted that afternoon to grade 2B. Reading was now going particularly well. In June she was advanced to 3A. The significance of two successive promotions after intervals of a month or six weeks is apparent when one recalls that before she came to the bureau the child, in spite of tutoring, had spent nearly three months in grade 1B.

In May, the social worker first raised the question of summer school work. Mildred's eyes "assumed a far-away look, she turned up her nose slightly, but she simply refused to express her preference in the matter." However, when the psychiatrist broached the subject two days later she was enthusiastic. She attended regularly except for a few days' interruption due to illness. At the close of the session, by arrangement with a relief agency, she went away to the seaside for four whole weeks, serene in the expectation of a double promotion in September.

Then came the return to school, and with it the severest shock Mildred had been called upon to endure since she came under the bureau's care. She was put into 3A, as if she had not attended summer school. For a day and a half she played truant, and when the visiting teacher called to see what was the matter, she rushed away into another room, threw herself on the bed, and sobbed. The teacher talked with Mildred gently, explaining that her education must have a good foundation, that none of the progressive steps might be left out. Next day the child was in school, apparently cheerful. At the visiting teacher's request the head of the department made a point of seeing her and promised that she would promote her should she prove ready. In a few days the promotion took place.

Checking Up On Results

In her first talk with the psychiatrist, early in October, Mildred's gain appeared most gratifying. She was much more alert, interested, keen, talked spontaneously of her good times at the seashore, and while she intimated her distress over the failure to be promoted immediately upon her return, she had clearly surmounted this difficulty. Her successful progress in school, the fact that she had left her younger sister far behind in the running, that the school people were interested and that the scout leader was anxious to have her return—all these elements had contributed in varying degrees to an increase in

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self-confidence so marked that the psychiatrist felt it had changed very materially her personality make-up.

Broadening Interests

During the month that followed the social worker sought recreational opportunities in the effort to widen Mildred's interests and free her from too great concentration on her own difficulties and those of her family. In particular, every effort was made to encourage the child to maintain a close connection with the Scouts. The result has been a definite success; Mildred is now a full-fledged and enthusiastic scout. In October the visitor learned that her earlier suggestions regarding the public library had already borne fruit, and that she had begun to take out books.

In November the worker tried an experiment. Meeting Mildred one day after a call on the mother, she presented her with a pretty hand-made pendant. The child was delighted, and upon the visitor's asking if she would like to learn to make similar pendants to give to her friends at Christmas, she responded with enthusiasm. Soon after, an appointment at the home of the worker was made, a lesson in the art of pendant-making given, and the guest kept for supper. Later the mother told the worker that Mildred seemed to have gained considerable satisfaction from making pendants for her classmates. "She made one and gave it to one girl. The other girls saw it and they all wanted one, so she made several and gave them away."

Possibly this record of attempts to broaden Mildred's interests may seem to consist of a string of very trivial incidents, this pendant-making episode the most trivial of all. But let us look a bit deeper. That this timid, shrinking little girl, so bitterly conscious of her inferiority among a group of younger schoolmates, should have been enabled to create a small furore of interest and enthusiasm by the exercise of an art unknown to them, and given the power to bestow special favors—this is no trifle. Those who have observed children closely, or who retain vivid recollections of their own childhood, will not fail to appreciate the important role that success plays in the child's development—above all in the development of the child with whom failure has become a habit, deadening hope and initiative.

School Problems and Progress

During this same month of November the psychiatrist made a minor discovery of some significance. The child suddenly revealed her very great sensitiveness over the fact that she had never, since coming to her present school, received a monthly report card. Mildred was in a sense a special student, advanced at irregular intervals as she proved prepared—she had already, in October, reached 4A; and it had never occurred to any one that she might be taking to heart this omission of a minor formality. But that was to reckon without the herd instinct. Her efforts to cover up her exceptional situation had been contributing, for a year past, to her consciousness of a difference, an inferiority to her comrades. Naturally, discovery led to speedy application of the obvious remedy, and in December we read that Mildred "is very happy about receiving a report card for the first time, although the C in work [received in one subject only] she feels sure ought to improve."

In the psychiatrist's next interview with the girl the subject of tutoring was broached. Mildred had reported, meanwhile, some improvement without such aid—she had received "B plus, B, A" on her report and was hoping to get into the 5A grade. Despite her evident ambition, her first response was, "I don't want to do it." Why? She didn't want to go to the assembly room—the place where she had met her tutor the year before. Again, why? Because "I don't like the others to see me or ask me questions."

As the psychiatrist points out, we have here an instance of how an entirely unforeseen reaction on the part of an extremely sensitive child may interfere with the success of a well planned effort to help. "This understanding of a child's possible emotional response to a remedial social measure should indicate to us the importance of using a little more imagination in the application of measures for treatment, especially in the handling of sensitive individuals."

Soon after this the visiting teacher was able to arrange for lessons with a tutor after school (*Continued on page* 547)

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SOCIAL WORK SHOPTALK

A CALLER dropped in at Paul Benjamin's office in Indianapolis a little while ago and asked "Is this the Family Warfare Society?" The caller was a woman.

JANE ADDAMS and Walter Prichard Eaton have accepted a risky job: they are to be two of the three judges to pick a prize play, keeping one eye on its "value as entertaining drama" and the other on the "importance of its social message." The plays are to be submitted by inventive social workers or sympathetic dramatists to the Committee on Publicity Methods in Social Work before March 15, 1924. The winner will get $250, put up by Walter May of Pittsburgh. He may also get the thrill of seeing his play produced at the national conference at Toronto—or may not. The canny committee reserves the right of producing some other play than the prize-winner on payment of royalty of $10. So the conferees may get their entertainment out of one piece and their uplift out of another. Conditions of the contest may be obtained from the chairman of the committee, 130 East 22 Street, New York.

DR. LINSLY R. WILLIAMS, managing director of the National Tuberculosis Association, has accepted a position as director of the New York Academy of Medicine. Until the new building which the academy is now planning is completed, Dr. Williams will devote the major portion of his time to the National Tuberculosis Association. He will ultimately have charge of all the educational activities of the Academy of Medicine.

A NEW home for aged and indigent couples is shortly to be opened in New York. It is seeking publicity "so that the home will have a large list from which to choose its inmates."

FROM the faculty of the Richmond (Va.) School of Social Work T. Earl Sullenger has gone to head the newly formed department of sociology at the University of Omaha, where he will emphasize social research.

FROM VIENNA to Norfolk, Va., is a bit of a long jump. Colonel William B. Causey, who is described in the announcements as "an engineer of wide reputation," but who was much more than that when he handled American relief problems in hungry Vienna, has become city manager of the Virginia seaport, succeeding Charles E. Ashburner, who goes to a similar position in Stockton, California. Both Colonel Causey and Mr. Ashburner serve at a salary of $20,000—which made them the most highly paid city managers in the country, until Cleveland set up her own city managership at $25,000.

KNOWLTON MIXER, manager of the Philippines Chapter of the American Red Cross, and Anna B. Cowles, secretary of the Junior Red Cross there, have resigned. Charles H. Forster, formerly assistant to the vice-chairman at Washington, and long devoted to the interests of the old Fourteenth Division—the foreign and insular chapters, will succeed Colonel Mixer. Mary Concannon, until recently secretary of the Junior Red Cross for the Pacific Division, goes to the Philippines to handle the junior work.

LEADERS for work with parents—visiting teachers, social workers, home economics students, nurses, and parents who wish to qualify for semi-professional service with parent groups—may profit by a course of training just begun at Teachers College, Columbia University. Field work in the 15-week course is under the direction of the Federation for Child Study, 242 West 76 Street, New York, which sponsors the experiment.

AN INGENIOUS variation of the return envelope and pledge card is being used in mail appeals by the Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania, of which George R. Bedinger is executive director. The two enclosures, usually separate, are combined in one and printed on a single piece of orange paper in such a way that the flap at the end of the envelope is prolonged to form the pledge slip, which can be torn off along the edge of the gummed section. This makes one less piece to handle and perhaps to lose as the material comes out of the original envelope on to the prospect's desk.

THE NEWS of the sudden death of Clyde G. Durgin on January 23 has brought sorrow and dismay to his friends and associates in social work. Mr. Durgin's entire working life was given to this calling. A Friend, graduated from Haverford in 1911, he entered the service of the Philadelphia Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children with which he received training and in which he rose to the rank of assistant director. In 1918 he was appointed to the staff of the Northern Division of the American Red Cross, where he became the assistant director of civilian relief. In the summer of 1920 he was called to be the executive secretary of the Associated Charities, Inc., of Duluth, Minn. Mr. Durgin brought to his work a deep sense of justice, broad and liberal views on social questions, an appreciation of the need of technical preparation and equipment for an effective attack on social maladjustment, a fine courage, patience and a sense of humor. In the northwest he had found a congenial atmosphere—a field where he felt that his gifts were of maximum use. Mr. Durgin leaves a wife and three little boys.

THE ASSOCIATED CHARITIES of Richmond, Va., has called Mrs. Louise McMasters to become its secretary. Mrs. McMasters was a district secretary of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities.

DR. HAVEN EMERSON, health editor of The Survey, just back from a study of the condition of German children, has taken on a new job for the benefit of American children by accepting the presidency of the Association for the Prevention and Relief of Heart Disease. Dr. Robert H. Halsey has been elected vice-president, Dr. William St. Lawrence secretary, and Edwin O. Holter treasurer.

THE CITY CLUB of Chicago, which recently surrendered its executive secretary, Mayo Fesler, to Cleveland, has appointed Herbert E. Fleming to succeed him. Mr. Fleming comes directly from the Bureau of Commercial Economics.

ATLANTA women have been asking themselves what Atlanta needs most. At a recent meeting of the Women's Club, of which Mrs. Alonzo Richardson is president, a committee headed by Mrs. M. C. Hardin brought together representatives of 24 organizations and political units to answer that question. Three citizen judges, supported by the house, agreed that the three most necessary things were unified and strengthened school facilities for the city and county, increased park and playground facilities, and wider and better paved streets. A psychiatric ward to care for patients who are now subject to temporary detention in jail was also urged.

DR. HELEN MOORE has resigned as director of the Child Hygiene Bureau of the Kansas Board of Health and has become associated with the American Child Health Association, New York City.

HOME EDUCATION is to be taught at the Boston University School of Education. Professor Ernest R. Groves will be in charge of the new department, and Dean Wilde will offer to the general public practical courses dealing with various aspects of family life.

NOT SINCE the visit of Dr. Alice Salomon to the National Conference of Social Work last summer has so representative a woman come to the United States from Germany as Frau Adele Schreiber, member of the German Reichstag and head of the Department for Welfare of Mother and Child of the German Red Cross. She has long been a member of the Board of the International Woman Suffrage Alliance, one of the few international organizations that kept up its work throughout the war period. It was in fact at the first meeting of the Alliance after the close of the war, with Mrs. Carrie Chapman Catt in the chair, that Frau Schreiber had word of her election to the Reichstag in that first year of reconstruction when republican hopes were so high in Germany. Frau Schreiber's faith in the Weimar constitution is as glowing as ever although she points out that it has not as yet had a chance to show its worth. Legislation centralizing the child welfare system of the Reich, setting up children's courts and the like, have remained largely inoperative because of lack of funds. "It is not enough to put words on paper," said Frau Schreiber in her first lecture before a group at the Women's University Club in New York, "we really want to do things; we can't do things now." Forty thousand refugees from the Ruhr who are living in camps in other parts of Germany are but one item in the catalog of the dire need which she reports not only stalls forward social work, but puts large sections of every great city in Germany on government dole.

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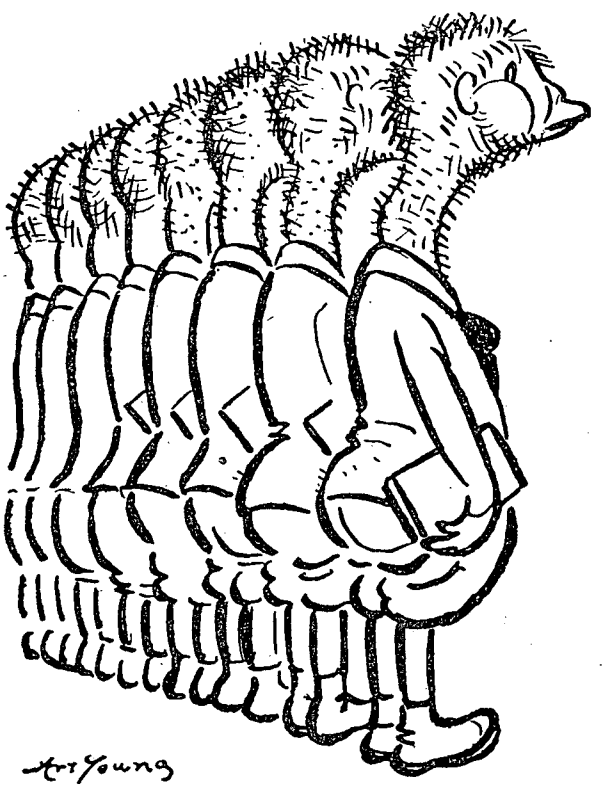

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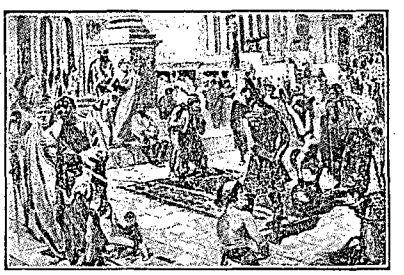

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COMMUNICATIONS

A Protest Is in Order

To the Editor: A letter from Mr. Bailey, chairman of the Personnel Classification Board, to The Trained Nurse and Hospital Review, indicates that the allocations for the Field Service, and in fact for the District of Columbia, have been submitted on a tentative basis and will without doubt be changed if there is enough protest.

When the census places social workers a little lower than the osteopathic angels and permits them the same footing as keepers of race tracks, selah! Social workers are not valued the less through this bit of humor, nor would the present classification materially affect nurses (except in a financial way), unless administrative standing should in the future be determined upon this classification.

If the classification lowers the salaries of nurses below the present rate which is meager enough at the best it will force the intellectual type out of public service. Imagine heads of services receiving $3,000 per year! The field service does not divide the schedule but I have been advised that nurses are again placed between grades 4 and 12 ($900 though $3,000). In the field service, however, according to paragraph 9, Circular No. 13, the final classification must be O. K'd by heads of departments and surely those heads have been so intimately informed of the dire results of the change that they will hesitate to watch their nursing personnel vanish. They possess the remedy.

Perhaps in a hundred years the whole tangle may be looked upon as one of the unconscious jokes of government.

Meta Pennock

Managing Editor, The Trained Nurse and Hospital Review, New York

Don't Forget the Women's Bureau

To the Editor: On the editorial page of The Survey for January 1, I have noticed an article on the classification and allocation of the positions in the Federal service in the District of Columbia as classified by the Personnel Classification Board.

I note with regret that while the Women's Bureau is mentioned as being classified in the Clerical, Administrative and Fiscal Service, it is merely mentioned. While we are interested in the Children's Bureau equally with the Women's Bureau and are very glad for your article on the Children's Bureau, we feel it is very important to the nearly 4,000,000 women working in industrial pursuits that the Women's Bureau should be given the right classification.

If the Women's Bureau is classed as a clerical service and the data on the employment of women collected by this bureau can be said to be collected by clerks and no special training for the job is recognized, it really nullifies the good work of this bureau. It is my understanding that the civil service requirements call for highly trained professional people.

In the controversies which arise when any agency, government or otherwise, is trying to collect accredited data and publishing such data on the industrial question, there are always those who want to discredit the work and therefore it is very important that the government itself give full recognition to the Women's Bureau and the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the two bureaus in the government collecting data on conditions of employment in the industries of the country.

Elizabeth Christman

Secretary-Treasurer, National Women's Trade Union League of America, Chicago

The Spirit of the Indian

To the Editor: In relation to the interesting illustrated article by Miss Sergeant in The Survey of December 1, may I say a word? To the student of psychology there comes the conviction that the North American Indian has tried to solve

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the riddle of his peculiar environment in the spirit of sincere spiritual devotion. But we, instead of recognizing this as religious faith, call it superstition because it does not agree with our religious conceptions. His and our methods may be different; but the spirit is the same. To the uninitiated, all pictures of Indian dances—better called ritual dramas—give an impression of a spectacular and bizarre performance. This impression is unjust to the Indian, for the underlying spiritual symbolism of each motion of the body and of each ceremonial article of dress is unrevealed.

The psychologist appreciates the likenesses in the fundamental workings of the mind of civilized and uncivilized races. If those of us who do not know the *spirit* of the Indian, continue to accentuate the surface differences between the native American and ourselves, we shall never regard the Indian from a human point of view. That he is as much a human being as ourselves is what people who have been in our Indian country realize. His native virtues, unsurpassed by our civilized code, are love of family, idealization of the young, and veneration of the old: a word once given may not be broken; hospitality to the traveler; industry and self-support; dignity and self-reliance; honesty; and, among the Pueblos, an historic love of peace.

EMMA FRANKLIN ESTABROOK

Chestnut Hill, Mass.

Out of a Cage

TO THE EDITOR: The following letter came to me in acknowledgment of some reports which I sent to the Red Cross in Hungary. I am sending it to you thinking that perhaps you could print it and that it would serve as an appeal for books and papers. The spirit of the letter is worth passing on.

NELLE SWARTZ

Bureau of Women in Industry,
Department of Labor, State of New York

THE LETTER FROM HUNGARY

I GOT the most interesting publications of your bureau which will constitute a valuable part of the gratuite library for social workers which we are on the point to start in the rooms and under the auspices of the Hungarian Red Cross.

I cannot thank you sufficiently for your kindness. I do not think that anybody living in luckier countries could realize what such a donation means for those who through the devaluation of their currency have no means left to buy books. We live in a sort of cage, cut off from every progress taking place in the outside world but with enough space left between the iron stakes, to see that such progress is taking place. Of course my friends and I must try our best to keep the younger people somehow up to date. Improvement was never needed more than under the present circumstances, although it was never more difficultly attainable. Yet the first thing to do is to give knowledge to the young social workers, and this is the purpose of our social library.

I tried to explain the great importance of your kind deed. Measure on it the depth of our gratitude and moreover excuse please my absolutely unenglish English.

J. E. VAJKAI

Save the Children Fund, Budapest, V., Balaton utca 10.

The Price of Bread

TO THE EDITOR: A Paris dispatch of December 15 to the New York Times states that "The price of bread has been raised to 1 franc 20 centimes a kilogram." The franc on that day was quoted at 5.29; the price of bread in Paris had advanced, then, to somewhat less than three cents a pound. The dispatch says: "The authorities sanctioned the increase because of the rise in the price of flour." In America, authorities do not interfere with economic law in such matters, and bread sells at a price well above three cents a pound. A reduction to or toward the French price would be in effect a material increase in wages and salaries, would go far to remedy undernourishment and would increase the American market for wheat.

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THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF HOSPITAL SOCIAL WORKERS—Miss M. A. Cannon, president, 105 East 22nd Street, New York City; Miss Lena R. Waters, executive secretary, The Johns Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore, Md. Organization to promote development of social work in hospitals and dispensaries. Annual meeting with National Conference of Social Work.

AMERICAN CHILD HEALTH ASSOCIATION (formerly American Child Hygiene Association and Child Health Organization of America)—Headquarters, 532 17th St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Administrative Offices, 370 7th Ave., New York. Herbert Hoover, pres.; L. Emmett Holt, M.D.; Livingston Farrand, M.D.; Thomas D. Wood, M.D.; 1st, 2nd, 3rd vice-presidents, respectively; Corcoran Thom, treas.; Philip Van Ingen, M.D., sec'y. To promote health among children from conception to maturity—this to be accomplished through cooperation with parents, doctors, nurses, teachers, and other health workers; by dissemination of scientific information and teaching methods in schools, through conferences, addresses, pamphlets, publicity material, and a monthly magazine, "Mother and Child."

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AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION—Lita Bane, executive secretary, Grace Dodge Hotel, Washington, D. C. Organized for betterment of conditions in home, school, institution and community. Publishes monthly Journal of Home Economics: office of editor, Grace Dodge Hotel, Washington, D. C.; of business manager, 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore, Md.

AMERICAN PEACE SOCIETY—Founded 1828, labors for an international peace of justice. Its official organ is the Advocate of Peace, $2.00 a year. Arthur Deerin Call, secretary and editor, 612-614 Colorado Building, Washinpton, D. C.

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INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS—First appointed 1854, located New York City 1866, incorporated 1883. Headquarters office, 347 Madison Ave., New York City, N. Y. Tel. Vanderbilt 1200. Branch offices, Chicago, Atlanta, Denver. Chairman, James M. Speers; Treasurer, B. H. Fancher; General Sec'y, John R. Mott. The Committee maintains a staff of executive and traveling secretaries for service in the interests of the Young Men's Christian Associations at home and abroad.

JOINT COMMITTEE ON METHODS OF PREVENTING DELINQUENCY—Graham Romeyn Taylor, executive director, 50 East 42d Street, New York. To promote the adoption of sound methods in this field, with particular reference to psychiatric clinics, visiting teacher work, and training for these and similar services; to conduct related studies, education and publication; and to interpret the work of the Commonwealth Fund Program for the Prevention of Delinquency.

NATIONAL BOARD OF THE YOUNG WOMENS CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS—Mrs. Robert E. Speer, president; Miss Mabel Cratty, general secretary, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York City This organization maintains a staff of executive and traveling secretaries to cover work in the United States in 1,034 local Y. W. C. A.'s on behalf of the industrial, business, student, foreign born, Indian, Colored and younger girls. It has 159 American secretaries at work in 49 centers in the Orient, Latin America and Europe.

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE—Owen R. Lovejoy, sec'y: 1 East 104th Street, New York. Industrial, agricultural investigations. Works for improved laws and administration, children's codes. Studies health, schools, recreation, dependency, delinquency, etc. Annual membership, $2, $5, $10. $25 and $100, includes monthly bulletin, "The American Child."

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NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK—Grace Abbott, president, Washington, D. C.; W. H. Parker, secretary, 25 East Ninth Street, Cincinnati, Ohio. The Conference is an organization to discuss the principles of humanitarian effort and to increase the efficiency of social service agencies. Each year it holds an annual meeting, publishes in permanent form the Proceedings of the meeting, and issues a quarterly Bulletin. The fifty-first annual meeting of the Conference will be held in Toronto, Canada, June 25th to July 2nd, 1924. Proceedings are sent free of charge to all members upon payment of a membership fee of five dollars.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS—Lewis H. Carris, managing director; Mrs. Winifred Hathaway, secretary; 130 East 22nd St., New York. Objects: To furnish information, exhibits, lantern slides, lectures, personal service for local organizations and legislation, publish literature of movement—samples free, quantities at cost. Includes New York State Committee.

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NATIONAL PHYSICAL EDUCATION SERVICE—315 Fourth Avenue, New York, N. Y. To obtain progressive legislation for physical education. Established at the request of a committee created by the United States Bureau of Education; 35 national organizations cooperating. Maintained by the Playground and Recreation Association of America.

NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE—For social service among Negroes. L. Hollingsworth Wood, pres.; Eugene Kinckle Jones, exec. sec'y; 127 E. 23rd St., New York. Establishes committees of white and colored people to work out community problems. Trains Negro social workers. Publishes "Opportunity"—a "journal of Negro life."

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PLAYGROUND AND RECREATION ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA—315 Fourth Avenue, New York City. Joseph Lee, president; H. S. Braucher, secretary. Special attention given to organization of year-round municipal recreation systems. Information available on playground and community center activities and administration.

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The Story of Mildred

(*Continued from page* 541)

hours—not in the assembly room. February brought the desired promotion to 5A. With a record of seven promotions during the year, Mildred is still pressing on.

Other Signs of Growth

This story would be incomplete if it were to leave the impression that school progress alone had been the goal and gauge of the bureau's work. Efforts to broaden the child's interests and her response have already been dwelt upon; her recreational life has been notably developed and her whole outlook is far happier and more normal. She has taken to reading the papers, as well as books from the library, has been making new friends, has passed her final scout tests, and is altogether quite a socially active young person. In her eagerness for summer work she recently went, with two friends, to see a possible employer. The other girls were refused because they were small, but Mildred—who has grown amazingly during the past year—stated that she was fifteen, and had all but "landed the job" when she was called upon to produce a birth certificate. The incident speaks for itself as to the maturity and self-confidence which the past eventful year has brought—even though respect for the majesty of the law and a sense of obligation to tell the truth have not come with them.

During the winter Mr. Martin's behavior seemed to have been growing worse. His wife reported such awful fights that the neighbors came in. The constant trouble had a very bad effect on the children. Mildred was the only one who could call her father "Daddy" or speak to him affectionately.

To have lifted the worst burden from the shoulders of mother and daughters by reclaiming the ne'er-do-well father would have been a triumph of social service. That this was not accomplished does not, however, diminish the success achieved in transforming his little daughter from a timid, hopeless, despairing child, utterly unequipped to deal with life, into a wholesome, vigorous, planful young person, working hard, carrying her full share of the family burdens, and looking forward to the not-far-distant time when she can assume financial responsibility and relieve her over-weighted mother. This story carries no implication of any new mysterious force which can transform the hard conditions of life. It does make clear, however, that a technique is being developed which by changing fundamental attitudes, habits and ways of dealing with life experiences, can nullify many adverse influences in personality and environment. In this instance latent powers were developed, new courage was evoked, and a child hitherto unequal to the struggle for existence was fitted to meet hard, unchanged conditions. That a profoundly unhappy little girl was thus transformed into a normally happy one will seem to many lovers of children a sufficient justification of the entire procedure.

Book Reviews

(*Continued from page* 535)

that just quoted had a profound effect upon his appraisal of such classics as John Stuart Mill's Political Economy and Malthus on Population—an influence which is manifested in his essay, A New Statement of the Law of Population. Those who knew him and respected his prophetic insight will be especially grateful to have in permanent form his analysis of the economic background of the war and the probable consequences of the Treaty of Versailles which first appeared as The Failure of Liberal Idealism in The Freeman for July 14 and 21, 1920. This is a peculiarly thought-provoking essay; based on Maynard Keynes' famous volume, of which it is trenchantly critical, it contains in epitome his theory of the economic interpretation of histor y.

Professor Tugwell has placed under substantial obligation not only those who came directly under Simon N. Patten's inspiring influence, but all socially minded students of economic theory.

ROBERT W. BRUÈRE

(*Book Reviews continued on page* 550)

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WANTED: Cottage Mother for Orphanage near Erie, Penna. State experience, age, training and salary expected. Address Superintendent B'nai B'rith Orphanage, Fairview, Erie County, Penna.

WANTED: In Eastern city, Jewish case work supervisor, capable of training workers and able to make effective community contacts. 4694 SURVEY.

WANTED: Italian nationality worker. Apply to the Community Welfare Association, Community Welfare Building, Springfield, Mass.

WANTED: In New York City, Jewish Case Work Supervisor, for a Family Welfare Agency, possessing general executive ability; also two experienced field workers. 4715 SURVEY.

ASSISTANT to have direct contact with children, small Receiving Home, Michigan Children's Aid Society, Lansing, Michigan.

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COOPERATIVE PLACEMENT SERVICE. Social workers, secretaries, superintendents, matrons, housekeepers, dietitians, cafeteria managers. Miss Richards' Bureau, 68 Barnes Street, Providence, R. I.

WORKERS WANTED

WANTED: Trained Public Health Nurses, salary $125. Give experience and reference. Visiting Nurse Association, 9 Market Street, Springfield, Mass.

WANTED: Young woman with sense for order, patience for detail, and experience or training in household management as housekeeper in busy neighborhood center in Manhattan. Cooperative rather than institutional. Small dining club, purchases for children's lunches, etc. 4722 SURVEY.

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TEACHERS wanted for public and private schools, colleges and universities. Education Service, Steger Building, Chicago; Southern Building, Washington; 1254 Amsterdam Ave., New York.

SITUATIONS WANTED

HUSBAND AND WIFE, college and social work training, 15 years' experience as executives, familiar with organizing, publicity, raising of funds, with special interest in community and delinquency problems in all aspects, successful writers and speakers, wish to develop or take charge of work. 4711 SURVEY.

WANTED: Position as business manager and housekeeper, for small hotel or large boarding house for summer months or longer if agreeable, by two capable young women. Address, L. S. N., 1007 Court Street, Lynchburg, Va.

CAPABLE YOUNG WOMAN, Jewish, desires Health and nutrition work with undernourished children. 4720 SURVEY.

SUPERINTENDENT—college graduate —married—Christian—experienced in the delinquent and dependent boy problem—thoroughly familiar with every phase of institutional problems and with the progressive industrial and scientific farm and dairy activities connected with the same. Desirous of making a change. 4721 SURVEY.

KINDERGARTNER would give part-time in Settlement in exchange for expenses. Assist in kindergarten, Children's Clubs. 4714 SURVEY.

SOCIAL WORKER, college graduate, eleven years' varied experience in children's aid work, city and rural, accustomed to public speaking, seeks responsible position. 4716 SURVEY.

SUCCESSFUL HOUSE MOTHER in New York City School desires similar position in Country Boarding School for girls, September. Best references. 4717 SURVEY.

SITUATIONS WANTED

MAN AND WIFE—who are at present connected in large Jewish institution as assistant superintendent and matron, but who are at liberty March 1st, desire position as superintendent and matron with orphan home, 7 years with City Recreation Centers and 2½ years with the Big Brother Movement. Best of references. 4708 SURVEY.

STATISTICAL EDITOR—College graduate, expert statistician, exceptional experience, formal Reports, marked executive ability; excellent references, prominent research organizations, available. 4713 SURVEY.

SUPERINTENDENT of Jewish Orphan Asylum is at liberty in March for similar position or other executive position. College graduate with twelve years' social work experience. 4709 SURVEY.

WOMAN with successful experience in various activities of community programs would like position requiring executive ability by April 1. Educational background and professional training. Protestant. Industrial field preferred. 4697 SURVEY.

WANTED: Position as teacher in sociology in large high school or college. Have A.M. degree in sociology; five years' experience as executive secretary in social work, four years' experience as high school teacher. Prefer the Middle West. 4712 SURVEY.

WANTED: Vacation position by House Mother in Private School for girls. Camp, or will travel with young people. Highest references. 4718 SURVEY.

EXECUTIVE—young woman with considerable experience in child care wishes superintendency of small Jewish Orphanage. References. 4706 SURVEY.

WANTED: September next, position as Head of Dormitory, Woman's College, by gentlewoman, well qualified and recommended. 4703 SURVEY.

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EUROPE IN 1923. By James G. McDonald. Foreign Policy Association, 9 East 45th Street, New York, N. Y.

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COLORADO STATE GRADUATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Colorado Springs, February 14-16. Secretary, May M. Carpenter, State Nurses Association, Denver.

NATIONAL SAFETY COUNCIL'S ENGINEERING SECTION, THE CHICAGO SAFETY COUNCIL, THE WESTERN SOCIETY OF ENGINEERS: Morrison Hotel, Chicago, February 19. G. E. Wallis, 168 North Michigan Ave., Chicago.

NATIONAL VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION: Auditorium Hotel, Chicago, February 21-23. Secretary, John M. Brewer, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University.

WYOMING PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATION: Cheyenne, February 25.

ACADEMY PRINCIPALS: Syracuse, New York, February 27-29.

TEXAS PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATION: Austin, February.

LOUISIANA STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Annual Meeting. New Orleans, February 28-29. Secretary, Mrs. Clara McDonald, 3028 Toledaur, New Orleans.

CONNECTICUT COMMITTEE FOR MENTAL HYGIENE: Waterbury, February 29. Medical Director, Dr. Otto G. Wiedman, 179 Allyn St., Hartford.

ALABAMA STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Tuscaloosa, March 9-11. President, Mrs. L. M. Bush, State Department of Child Welfare, Montgomery.

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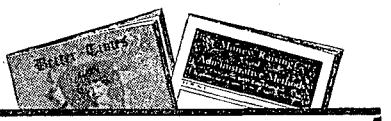

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THE RUN OF THE SHELVES

THE OLD AND THE NEW GERMANY, *by John F. Coar. Alfred A. Knopf. 288 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

ONE DANGER of giving such a volume as this its due praise is that in doing so the reviewer is apt to put off the very readers he would like to gain for it. Suffice it therefore to say that this is just the sort of book which is needed today by the thousands of Americans who would wish to see redefined their own attitude and that of their country towards Germany. It is a book full of information that is not available elsewhere in so simple and clear a form of presentation; for instance the events of the revolution have never been more accurately related in an American publication; the constitution of the Reich never been more carefully and correctly analysed; the new educational system and economic order never been described with more regard to the essential changes in popular attitudes of which they are the expression. But of even greater value, perhaps, from the point of view of the need for a new orientation to things German in America, is the constant reference of the author to American analogies in the German phenomena which he has to explain; he thus brings nearer to his readers' comprehension psychological facts that have been obscured by a deliberate miseducation of unprecedented extent. In revealing prevalent misunderstandings, the author retains a patience and balanced judgment which often is missing in similar efforts. There are many passages which one is tempted to quote—a few of them to take issue with them—his collection of facts concerning the legend of Germany's prosperity, his remarks on Hugo Stinnes and the real part played by him in the economic policies of his country, his description of the Weimar constitutional assembly and its representativeness, his illustrations of the changed character of German officialdom and of the popular attitude towards bureaucracy and militarism. But no quotation could do justice to the discrimination with which the author has distinguished between the parallel development of the political, economic and cultural Germany or the convincing sequence of argument with which he brings home the three essential points in any program of reconstruction.

B. L.

HEALTH TRAINING IN SCHOOLS, *A Handbook for Teachers and Health Workers, by Theresa Dansdill. National Tuberculosis Association. 405 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

"HEALTH EDUCATION is an integral part of all first class public school systems . . . In a very few years every good school system will include health education ratings on the same basis on which they now include mental examinations and educational achievement ratings in arithmetic or language," Dr. Bird T. Baldwin told the International Health Congress at San Francisco last summer. Surely teachers and health workers who are trying to give health its rightful place in the program will find a mine of interesting material in Miss Dansdill's handbook, which gives a series of outlines for the grades followed by chapters illustrating methods, such as stories and games, and chapters outlining special subjects—cleanliness, clothing, teeth, nutrition, and the like. While the subject matter is arranged with special reference to the Modern Health Crusade, the really remarkable collection of stories, jingles and other teaching material emphasizing health could be used equally well by teachers or classes interested in working out their own scheme.

M. R.

THE PRINCIPLES OF VITAL STATISTICS, *by I. S. Falk. Wm. B. Saunders Co. 258 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

TO A PERSONAL knowledge of individual social problems, those interested in social work should add a broad view of life and health movements from a community and national standpoint, which they can now do readily with the help of vital statistics. Professor Falk, of the public health faculty at Yale, has here provided something more than an elementary treatise on this most useful branch of statistical science. By assembling, for a quick and yet comprehensive study, the results yielded by

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the application of statistical methods to life, health and mortality data in the United States, he has given us an opportunity to view in a measured way the remarkable health progress of the present generation in this country, while at the same time practically illustrating how similar investigations should be conducted in any community. No special training in statistics on the part of the reader is necessary to absorb the full lesson of the book, which can be read carefully in a few hours. It deals with such subjects as these: vital statistics—what they are; the census and the composition of the population; births and birth-rates; infant mortality; morbidity—sickness in the community, the incidence of physical defects; mortality—the causes of death; and a chapter on interpretation of statistics, errors and fallacies. Many excellent graphs and charts explain the text clearly and contribute additional facts that can be taken in at a glance. There is an admirable bibliography and a list of general references for any student desiring to do advance reading, or to secure further facts and topics of interest

G. J. DROLET

INTRODUCTION TO MEDICAL BIOMETRY AND STATISTICS, *by Raymond Pearl. Wm. B. Saunders Co. 379 pp. Price $5.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

ANY executive health officer, or scientist engaged in the study of biology, who wishes to substitute, for "personal experience" or "estimates," accurate, unprejudiced, convincing measurements of findings or results achieved, will be amply repaid for the time he may give to studying the principles and the methods described in Professor Pearl's book, which is probably one of the best presentations of the scientific methods evolved by what might be termed the English school of statistics. Though primarily addressed to medical men, it is in itself a treatise on the general principles underlying the somewhat new science of statistics, which in this case is higher mathematics applied to the measurement of biological or life processes. Dr. Biggs emphasized in his last years that the day of considering only crude death-rates in appraising health progress of communities was passing, and that in the future only specific and standardized death-rates would be utilized for measurements and comparisons. Professor Pearl discusses helpfully the proper use and computation of these corrected rates. American readers especially will find most valuable the detailed table of the specific death-rates for each of the 189 causes of death, listed in the international classification, given for both males and females at each five-year period of life for the entire United States registration area in 1910. The figures and rates given so minutely will become yardsticks against which progress of later times must be measured. No social worker or health officer should be without knowledge of this particular data.

G. J. DROLET

THE BIRTH AND GROWTH OF RELIGION, *by George F. Moore. Charles Scribner's Sons. 178 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS VOLUME by the professor of the history of religion at Harvard contains the Morse lectures delivered in 1922 at Union Theological Seminary. It is intended to be an account of the origin and development of religion easily comprehended by the average reader. In view of the increasing interest today in the why and how of religion it should find a very ready audience. The author finds that the universal motive of religion consists in the impulse to self-preservation and in the further impulse to self-realization. For back of all our struggle and endeavor is the desire for "Life, more life, a fuller, richer, more satisfying life," and this aspiration cannot be satisfied alone with goods and things. There is, there must be, a place for God.

W. E. BROOKS

MIND AND HEREDITY, *by Vernon L. Kellogg. Princeton University Press. 108 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

IN THIS delightful little volume Professor Kellogg discusses the subject of mind "from the special angles of approach open to the general biologist and to the biologist especially interested in human life." It ranges from the instinct minds of the "solitary" wasps—evidently his friends—over the higher forms of mind, with due consideration of honey-bees, silk worm moths, hunted rabbits, inherited minds, intelligence tests in school and army, education, racial traits and immigration. An inviting example of small-book making.

A. K.

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[*After you have read this page, read the letter on the opposite page.*]

1

An Aunt and Her Nephew

When your nephew—or your niece—does something to make you tremendously proud of him, doesn't it give you a "warm, choking feeling?"

That is how Mrs. Dobson (that is not her real name) felt about her fourteen-year old nephew.

Mrs. Dobson tells about it in the following letter to The Survey. After you have read it, turn to the opposite page and read the letter she wrote to her nephew.

DEAR SURVEY:

If you have time to listen I would like to tell you a story, the meaning of which will please you.

I have a lovely sister with a fine husband and four sons ranging from 6 to 14 years in age, at least they were when this story starts; now they are all a year older, and I have worried over these boys because there is never a word spoken, in that otherwise perfect family, about any social point of view, nor does any reading matter come in the house to back one,—and alas the Survey did not interest the grown ups, so I decided to tackle the boys direct.

I wrote to the 14 year old the enclosed letter and started the subscription and took my hands off. As I live in a different city I could not watch developments, but when the Russian number (I sent him only the Graphic) came out, his mother happened to mention that Alfred had come to her quite excited and advised her to read an article entitled "Labor's Task Where Labor Rules," because it was so interesting.

I was not on the job and forgot when the subscription expired last April, and I imagine the summer vacation compensated for its loss, and this fall Alfred was sent away to boarding school. He left with his mother a few dollars for safe keeping, but in a few weeks she got a letter from him enclosing a Survey subscription blank and asking her please to take his money and send it to continue his subscription so it could be sent to him at school. It took it all!

Now I don't expect you to get the warm choking feeling over it that I did because he is not your nephew, but if you don't feel it a big tribute to the Survey I will be very much disappointed.

Very sincerely yours,

CHARLOTTE DOBSON

NOW—read Mrs. Dobson's letter to her nephew, on the opposite page

(*Advertisement*)

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[*Before reading this page, read Mrs. Dobson's letter to The Survey on the opposite page.*]

2

The Letter She Wrote to Her Nephew

DEAR ALFRED:

You will be surprised in a week or so to get a magazine which is not written for boys but for grown up men and women, and it is about the things which are happening in the big world in which you live, particularly in this country, but also in other countries.

I want to try and make you understand why I am sending it to you—and I think I can do it by asking you to remember this. You are a boy growing up in a *Home,* this home is part of a *City,* and this city is part of a *State,* and this state is part of a *Country* and this country is part of the *World.* And between the Home, City, State, Country and World there should and do exist the closest relationships, whether people believe it or not, because in all of them very much the same sort of boys live, and grow to be men.

And the more they all succeed in understanding each other, and helping each other, the better homes and countries we have. For if you follow in your mind what I asked you to remember, you can easily understand that a country is made up of all the people in all their homes and so it is the kind of country that they are people. Now understanding other people that are different from you,—act differently and think differently,— is about the biggest man's job there is—and to understand, you have first to know the truth about them.

Now the world is big and so we cannot go all over finding out for ourselves the truth about things, so we have often to take the word of other people either spoken or printed, and usually printed in papers or books.

But before you take another person's word you must be very sure of two things—1st that he can get the truth, 2nd that he will tell it to you.

We depend upon the newspapers a great deal for news and rightly so, but we can not depend on all newspapers all the time for the *Truth*—(And I am sorry that I can't take space to explain just now why that is, but it is so).

You get the news from them and much of it is quite true, but you can't be sure which is, because while some newspapers will not print what they know to be a lie, they may, for various reasons, leave out what they know to be the truth and so people get a false impression.

For instance—Suppose you and your mother were taking a walk and a boy grabbed her pocket book and you grabbed him to get it, and he knocked you down and you jumped up and got in an awful fight and then a policeman took you both to police court to explain.

You know how you'd feel! Well suppose next day the paper said "Alfred Dobson, Jr. attacked a boy and took a pocket book from him and was arrested and taken to jail" it would be a partial truth as bad as any lie and people who read it and did not know you would have a very bad opinion of you.

I hope that will help you to understand how wise it is to learn the whole truth before forming an opinion. For learning the truth is really the whole of education and will go on all your life, for school is only a very small part of Education.

Now this magazine I am going to send you every month for a year will tell the truth about a good many things that happen in this man's world in which your boy's home is a part.

You may not be much interested at first, but I would like it very much if you would read at least one article each month and try to understand it and get something out of it, for if you do you will be learning to be a thinking man as some of your forebears were, and you will be *learning* to be a man, intelligent in the ways of this present world around you, about which you cannot know too much and in which you will all too soon have to take your part.

I would like very much to have Charles hear *this* letter and if he feels interested share in the magazine too.

The first I think will be about Coal, about which you may hear older people talking a great deal.

With very much love,

Your devoted

AUNT CHARLOTTE.

Alfred is 14 years old. He is not an abnormal boy. He plays football and takes an active part in his school affairs. He is not unlike boys and girls *you* know.

Will you give some boy or girl the start that Alfred's aunt gave him?

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